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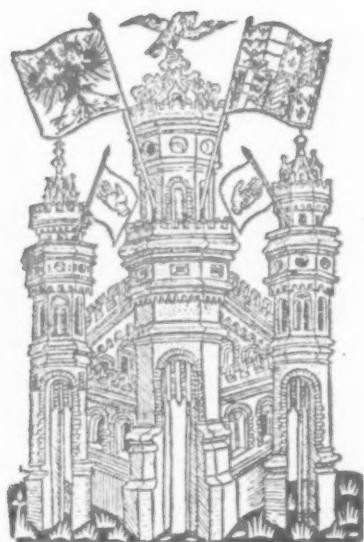
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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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Volume XV

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THE LITERATURE OF AMERICAN LIBRARY HISTORY

J. H. SHERA

I. JOSIAH QUINCY AND THE HISTORY OF THE BOSTON ATHENAEUM

IN THE autumn of 1847 Josiah Quincy (1772-1864), at the age of seventy-five, retired to the seclusion of his private library, lighted his study lamp, and set himself to the task of writing the history of the Boston Athenaeum.¹ Behind him lay a period of service in the Congress of the United States, five terms of militant reform as Boston's "great mayor," and sixteen tumultuous years of vigorous liberalism as president of Harvard University, not to mention an ancestry that could be traced back to Edmund Quincy, who migrated to America in 1633. Nor was this role of historian a new one to Josiah Quincy. In 1840 had appeared his two-volume history of Harvard which, as Samuel Eliot Morison says, "lasted almost a century as the standard history" of that university.² Also, in 1846, he had begun simultaneously work on the life and journals of

his uncle, Major Samuel Shaw,³ and his municipal history of Boston.⁴ That his interest in books and libraries was considerably above the average is evident from the size of his own private collection, his participation in the establishment of the Athenaeum, and his active campaigning for a fireproof building for the Harvard library, which resulted in the use of the Christopher Gore bequest for the erection of Gore Hall.⁵

On April 27, 1847, the cornerstone of the Athenaeum's new Beacon Street "edifice" was laid, and for the ceremonies Quincy prepared a retrospective sketch of the library. Thus was brought to a focus the need, subsequently expressed by a number of the proprietors, for a detailed history of the Athenaeum. Says Quincy:

Although aware that the materials for the task were, some of them, difficult to be obtained, my relation to the founders of the Athenaeum,

¹ Biographical data are from Edmund Quincy, *Life of Josiah Quincy of Massachusetts* (5th ed.; Boston: Fields, Osgood & Co., 1869), and James Walker, "Memoir of Josiah Quincy," *Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society*, IX (1866-67), 83-156.

² Biographical sketch of Josiah Quincy in the *Dictionary of American Biography*, IX, 310. It was Morison's own tercentennial history of Harvard that rendered Quincy's *History* obsolete.

³ *The Journals of Major Samuel Shaw, the First American Consul at Canton, with a Life of the Author* (Boston: W. Crosby & H. P. Nichols, 1847).

⁴ *A Municipal History of the Town and City of Boston* (Boston: C. C. Little & J. Brown, 1852).

⁵ "Report on the Condition of the Library," *Seventh Annual Report of the President of Harvard University* (1833), pp. 4-6. See also Quincy's *Considerations Relative to the Library of Harvard University, Respectfully Submitted to the Legislature of Massachusetts* (Cambridge: C. Folsom, 1833).

and to the institution itself, induced me to comply with their request.⁶

Work was interrupted in 1850 by the death of his wife, but his son adds:

My father soon sought relief from the presence of this great grief which study and occupation could afford. He busied himself with finishing his *History of the Boston Athenæum*, which had been delayed, as he says himself, by circumstances for which he was not responsible.⁷

The book came from the press in 1851 and was "very well received," says Edmund, "by the proprietors of the Athenæum and the general public."⁸ Such were the circumstances surrounding the composition of what may be categorically declared the first formal history of an American library.⁹ Doubtless mere priority would not justify further consideration of the book, but additional importance attaches to it because, as a piece of historical writing, it so completely reflects the contemporary influences attendant upon its inception; its subject treatment is typical of library historiography for the three-quarters of a century that were to follow.

That the proprietors of the Athenæum felt the need for a history of their library is not surprising, for the decades between 1830 and 1850 were an era of unprecedented interest in the American past. It was the period of Jared Sparks's greatest activity; George Bancroft was making American history popular to a

degree previously unequaled; Parkman, Prescott, and Motley were emphasizing the dramatic element in history; and that "spectre of the Athenæum," Richard Hildreth, was striving to present

the founders of our American nation undebauched with patriotic rouge, wrapped up in no fine-spun cloaks of excuses and apology, without stilts, buskins, tinsel, or bedizzenment, in their own proper persons, often rude, hard, narrow, superstitious, and mistaken, but always earnest, downright, manly, and sincere.¹⁰

The reasons for this sudden and widespread popular concern with the past are to be found in the number of influences inherent in the life of that time. American nationality was definitely on the march, and from this growing enthusiasm there arose a natural and spontaneous desire to inform the world concerning the United States and the events that resulted in the new freedom. Furthermore, the occurrences surrounding the Revolution had receded sufficiently to permit a proper historical perspective, while most of the participants in these events had died, leaving the record of their lives open and available to the scholar. On the economic side American

⁶ *The History of the Boston Athenæum, with Biographical Notices of Its Deceased Founders* (Cambridge: Metcalf & Co., 1851), p. iii.

⁷ Edmund Quincy, *op. cit.*, p. 500.

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ This, of course, ignores fugitive materials such as W. Smith, "Notes for a History of the Library Company of Philadelphia," *Waldie's Portfolio* (Philadelphia, September 26, 1835), p. 100, as well as brief and sketchy historical notices appearing in the periodical press and frequently prefixed to the early printed catalogs of individual libraries.

¹⁰ *The History of the United States of America* (rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Bros., 1871), I, vii. The great popularity of history at this time is evident from the fact that Weems's *Life of Washington* reached some seventy editions, and by 1875 the early volumes of Bancroft's work had appeared in twenty editions. See Michael Kraus, *A History of American History* (New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1937), chaps. v-viii; Vernon L. Parrington, *Main Currents in American Thought* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1930), II, 437 ff.; and Van Wyck Brooks, *The Flowering of New England* (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1936), chap. vi. This American enthusiasm for American history was, of course, one manifestation of a larger movement which in Europe brought about the publication of important nationalist histories resulting largely from the revolutions of 1830. Bismarck is said to have thought that the German professors of history were surpassed only by the Prussian army in doing most to create the new Germany under the hegemony of Prussia.

capital had grown sufficiently to support historical research and to contribute to the establishment of libraries within the walls of which the scholar might obtain many of the materials he desired. International contacts, too, were becoming more important through the efforts of Ticknor, Everett, and Emerson. Good publishing mediums, such as the *North American Review*, were available to the young and ambitious scholar. Finally, there was the stimulus of an increasingly eager reading public.¹¹ Quincy's *History of the Boston Athenæum* was conditioned by all these tendencies, and to the student of library historiography it is therefore of more than passing interest. The expression of an age, it merits a consideration of its three outstanding characteristics.

Its most obvious quality as historical writing is, of course, its factual and narrative character. Quincy writes in the Preface:

My chief object has been, by abstracting and condensing, to enable the Athenæum to narrate its own history; which would thus be unexceptionable in form, and more satisfactory in effect.¹²

One cannot decry this procedure. Quincy's essential preoccupation with the event per se, divorced from any causal factors that might give to the event a wider meaning, was typical of historical writing in general before the advent of Darwin and Huxley opened new vistas for historical exploration and gave the historian new tools with which to work.

The second quality of the book is its essential didacticism, for Quincy was

not merely preserving a record of events surrounding the inception and growth of the Athenæum; he was definitely attempting to present a picture of the Athenæum that would be an inspiration and hence promote continued financial support. He concludes the *History* with these words:

Nor can the writer of this History refrain, on this occasion, from expressing, in behalf of his departed friends and contemporaries, the delight they would have felt, if, looking through the long vista of nearly fifty years, they could have seen a result thus exceeding their fondest and brightest literary and patriotic visions;—if the little band of enthusiastic scholars, when casting together, from their scanty means, a few volumes to form a collection of "periodical publications," could have beheld in the distance these small seeds expanded into a library of more than *fifty thousand* volumes . . . the hearts of each and all of them would have been filled with a joy and exultation, which those alone can understand and realize, who, like them, combine, as an active principle of their lives, a love of literature with a love of country.¹³

Further, Edmund Quincy, in speaking of the book and his father's labors upon it, adds:

This work was very well received by the proprietors of the Athenæum and the general public; and, besides recording the services and characters of several excellent and accomplished men whose memories were fading out of the minds of this generation, it brought the importance of maintaining such an institution distinctly to the attention of the community.¹⁴

The degree to which this purpose was achieved is again attested by the son:

. . . and it were not, perhaps, too much to claim for him that . . . his History materially helped to revive the public interest in the Athenæum, and to promote the movement which soon afterwards placed it on its present [1867] enlarged and permanent foundation.¹⁵

¹¹ Frank Luther Mott, *A History of American Magazines, 1741-1850* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1930), Part III, "The Period of Expansion: 1825-1850," pp. 339-528.

¹² *History of the Boston Athenæum*, p. v.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 239-41.

¹⁴ Edmund Quincy, *op. cit.*, p. 500.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 501.

Josiah Quincy's object was, then, twofold: first, by commemorating the acts of the Athenaeum's founders, to deepen popular consciousness of the growing American heritage and, second, to impress upon a younger generation the importance and value of the Athenaeum as a cultural asset and, in so doing, to make more certain its future support. In this, too, his work was part and parcel of the stream of contemporary historical writing. Prescott and Motley were writing history which showed the triumph of Protestantism over Catholicism, Weems attempted to teach the youth moral virtue as exemplified in the life of our first president, and Bancroft, by his spiritual exultation over the achievements of God, democracy, and progress in American history, was striving to combat a sensitiveness to European criticism that sprang from the realization that those republican institutions of which America should be so proud were on trial before the world. So, too, was Quincy an exemplar of that intense loyalty to American potentialities which De Tocqueville called *le patriotisme irritable*.

Finally, Quincy's *History* is nostalgic in tone—a quality closely related to its didacticism and originating from the personal elements inherent in its composition. That the author was an old man, between the ages of seventy-five and eighty, at the time of the book's writing has already been mentioned. As a member of Congress he had violently opposed Jefferson's embargo, had been an advocate of New England secession, and had generally represented a conservative political point of view. Truly a Colonial Whig, born after his time, he was, as Lowell picturesquely phrased it, "an old Roman of the elder virtuous days . . . an example of stalwart and an-

tiquated Federalism."¹⁶ In 1853 he was to assume a leading part in defeating George Ticknor's proposal to merge the Athenaeum with the Boston Public Library then being formed.¹⁷ Moreover, in writing of the Athenaeum, he was writing about his friends.

All of them were my contemporaries, and, with the exception of Gardiner, Emerson, and Kirkland, my juniors. With most of them my intercourse had been intimate; and I could not but regret that so little is known of them by a generation now enjoying the benefits of an institution which had its origin in their love of letters and their patriotic spirit.¹⁸

As he wrote in the Preface to the *History*, so also in his journal he says:

I am well repaid for all the difficulties and trouble attending it [the composition of the Athenaeum history] by the satisfaction I feel at having been instrumental in preserving the memory and services of some of my early friends, and by having done justice, though feebly, to their merits.¹⁹

Small wonder, too, that William Smith Shaw, the first librarian of the Athenaeum, struggling against poor health, obsessed with the idea of that library, and with pockets bulging with books, is seen as essentially a romantic figure, of whom Quincy wrote in the Preface:

With William Smith Shaw, who is better entitled than any other individual to the name of Founder of the Athenaeum, my intimacy, through his whole life, was strict and confidential. I was a constant witness of the energy, zeal, and devotedness with which he watched over it in its embryo state, and knew his fond anticipations concerning its future greatness and usefulness.²⁰

¹⁶ Quoted by Parrington, *op. cit.*, II, 279.

¹⁷ Josiah Quincy, *An Appeal in Behalf of the Boston Athenaeum, Addressed to the Proprietors* (Boston: J. Wilson & Son, 1853).

¹⁸ *History of the Boston Athenaeum*, pp. iii-iv.

¹⁹ Quoted by Edmund Quincy, *op. cit.*, p. 500.

²⁰ *History of the Boston Athenaeum*, p. iv.

In addition to this basic emotion, already strongly intrenched in Quincy's spirit, there was the event of his wife's death in the midst of his work on the *History*, which terminated a married life of fifty-three years, thus severing another link with the past and intensifying Quincy's personal identification with the Athenaeum—"the strong hold which an institution of this character takes upon the affections."²¹

From the evidence presented by Quincy's *History* one may conclude that the writing of the history of libraries may be as deeply rooted in contemporary life as the establishment and development of the libraries themselves. Does the writing of library history reflect the writing of history in general? Is American library historiography as integral a part of the contemporary social pattern as are the libraries of which it treats? Should the writing of library history take into account the fact that libraries are a manifestation of the social and economic environment, shaped by and not insulated from the action of contemporary life? Assuming these questions to be answered in the affirmative, what direction should the future writing of library history take? These are the questions that the present discussion attempts to answer.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. v. The tenacity of this hold and the degree to which Quincy esteemed the original plans of the founders of the Athenaeum are apparent from his vigorous opposition to the movement to convert the Athenaeum into a public library for the city of Boston. So vigorous was Quincy's leadership that the plans set forth in the spring of 1853, by Ticknor and his liberal followers, to make the Athenaeum really public were defeated in a vote of the Athenaeum proprietors that has become historic in the annals of that library. Quincy's *History* should be read in the light of this defense. See Josiah Quincy, *An Appeal in Behalf of the Boston Athenaeum*, and Edmund Quincy, *op. cit.*, p. 501.

II. THE COMPILATIONS OF JEWETT AND RHEES

For the fifty or sixty years that followed the publication of Quincy's *History* the stream of historical writing about libraries was little more than a trickle. Both in quantity and in quality it is unimpressive. But in 1851 and in 1859, respectively, there appeared two volumes which, though neither consciously nor dominantly historical in intent, contain data of considerable importance to the historian and hence merit consideration in a survey such as this. In the former year Charles C. Jewett, then librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, published his *Notices of Public Libraries in the United States*,²² which was followed by William J. Rhees's *Manual of Public Libraries*²³ in the latter year.

Jewett's main objective was to present a statistical survey of public library resources in the United States as of the middle of the year 1849, and, he adds, "I have endeavored to collect such historical, statistical, and descriptive notices as would be of general interest; together with such special details as would be beneficial to those who are engaged in the organization and care of similar establishments."²⁴

It should be noted that Jewett was not the first to survey library resources in this country. In 1724 the Bishop of London sent a circular letter to all parish churches in Maryland asking certain questions regarding the church facilities. Among these questions he asked: "Have you a parochial library? If you have, are the books preserved, and kept in good

²² Washington: Smithsonian Institution, 1851.

²³ *Manual of Public Libraries, Institutions, and Societies in the United States and British Provinces of North America* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1859).

²⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

condition? Have you any particular rules and orders for the preserving of them? Are these rules and orders duly observed?" Over twenty parishes responded.²⁵ Between the years 1799 and 1818, Benjamin Trumbull, then collecting materials for his history of Connecticut from 1630 to 1764, wrote to an important individual, usually one or more of the ministers, in practically every Connecticut town. In these letters he posed ten questions concerning the historical development of the town, its date of settlement, its church history, its municipal growth and expansion, its schools, its industries, and even the history of its Indians. As the final question he wrote: "What libraries are there in the town? When instituted, and of what number of volumes do they consist?"²⁶ Trumbull used the answers to the library question for the writing of only a summary statement at the end of his *History*, but the material on libraries established before 1801 has been summarized in tabular form by R. Malcolm Sills and Eleanor Stuart Upton of the Yale Library staff.²⁷ Following a

similar method, Horace Mann, when secretary to the Board of Education of Massachusetts, sent in 1839 an inquiry addressed to "school committees and other intelligent men" residing in every town of the Commonwealth. Because "it would be highly useful and interesting to know what means exist, either for cultivating or gratifying habits of reading among the young; and also, to what extent persons of a more advanced age avail themselves of the researches and attainments of other minds, through the medium of regular courses of lectures, on literary or scientific subjects," he took "the liberty to propose" eleven questions concerning libraries, lyceums, and institutes in every community.²⁸ In 1845 a survey of American libraries was made by Hermann Ludewig of Dresden.²⁹ In 1849 Henry Barnard published a list of the "public" libraries of Rhode Island.³⁰ Many yearbooks, almanacs, etc., published summary statistical tables of libraries, but most of these are drawn from the basic sources mentioned above. Important as these surveys are—and their value as source material for the historian is certainly not to be doubted—they have been excluded from the present consideration because they are not actually the writing of library history.

to have a wide social library development, its importance for general library history transcends state boundaries.

²⁵ A summary, by counties, of the results of this questionnaire was included in Mann's third annual report, published in the *Common School Journal*, II (1840), 122-28. As far as the present writer knows, the replies to Mann's letters have not been preserved.

²⁶ "Bibliographie und Bibliotheken in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika," *Serapeum: Zeitschrift für Bibliothekswissenschaft, Handschriftenkunde, und ältere Literature*, VI (1845), 209-24; VII (1846), 113-23, 129-72, 178-92, 204-6.

²⁷ *Report and Documents Relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island, 1848* (Providence: Published by order of the general assembly, 1849), pp. 425-28.

²⁵ The results of this survey are to be found in William S. Perry, *Historical Collections Relating to the American Colonial Church*, Vol. IV: *Maryland*, pp. 190-232.

²⁶ The answers to these questions are preserved in their original letter form in two large scrapbooks now the property of Yale University, and for the opportunity to make use of this important source material the present writer is deeply indebted to Bernhard Knollenberg, librarian, and Anne S. Pratt, reference librarian, of that university.

²⁷ "The 'Trumbull Manuscript Collections' and Early Connecticut Libraries," in *Papers in Honor of Andrew Keogh, Librarian of Yale University, by the Staff of the Library*, 30 June 1938 (New Haven: Privately printed, 1938), pp. 325-42. Sills and Upton supplemented the Trumbull data with information gleaned from other sources in their attempt to present a truly definitive list of Connecticut libraries prior to 1801. The replies to Trumbull's questions vary, of course, in detail and accuracy; but, taken as a whole, this collection is the most important single source on early libraries in this country, and, since Connecticut was among the first of the colonies

Except for their information on the dates of establishment, they were contemporary, not historical, accounts; and, though they are historical material today, they were not such at the time of their writing.

Rhees's *Manual* was originally planned as a continuation of the Jewett compilation and, indeed, draws to some extent from that report.

When . . . the work was presented to the Secretary of the Institution [i.e., the Smithsonian Institution, of which Rhees was the chief clerk], he found it so extended with matter not within the original design, that he did not think himself authorized to adopt it as a Smithsonian report on libraries. The work is therefore published by the compiler in the belief that the additional matter, while swelling the cost beyond the appropriation which was made for it by the Institution, will greatly increase its value, and render it more acceptable to the public.³¹

Rhees's purpose, too, had a certain element of didacticism. He adds:

It is hoped, however, that the facts presented will be considered valuable and instructive, and will not only serve to throw new light on our advancement as a people; but will tend to produce greater interest in those powerful means of mental and moral improvement,—our Public Libraries.³²

In both volumes the historical material is all too brief for the complete satisfaction of the historian; always factual and never interpretive, it is grist for the historian's mill rather than true historical writing itself. Yet as compendiums of existing knowledge of library development they represent an early and important attempt to record with a considerable degree of accuracy the significant facts surrounding the growth of libraries over the country.

³¹ Rhees, *op. cit.*, p. v. A portion of the report was published as an eighty-page pamphlet by the Institution.

³² *Ibid.*

III. EDWARD EDWARDS

In the year of Rhees's *Manual* there appeared in England a two-volume work with the title *Memoirs of Libraries*,³³ by one Edward Edwards, sometime supernumerary of the British Museum, afterward its historian, and later the first librarian of the Manchester Free Library.³⁴ The treatise in general is, of course, concerned primarily with the situation in Great Britain, but considerable space is devoted to foreign countries, and in this the United States is granted a not inconspicuous share. He divides American libraries into five major groups according to type—collegiate libraries, proprietary and subscription libraries, congressional and state libraries, town libraries, and school-district libraries—and adds a chapter on the Smithsonian Institution.³⁵ Richard Garnett, in his sketch of Edwards appearing in the *Dictionary of National Biography*, credits him with being an able and conscientious historian, but Edwards' work on American libraries is certainly of little real value to the student on this side of the Atlantic. Throughout he leans very heavily on Jewett's *Notices*, adding only occasional material from a few other obvious sources and contributing nothing that the student of American library history

³³ *Memoirs of Libraries: Including a Handbook of Library Economy* (London: Trübner & Co., 1859). As a matter of fact, this work appeared while Rhees's *Manual* was in the process of publication, and parts of his sections dealing with library practice are drawn from it. See Rhees's Preface, p. vi.

³⁴ The standard biography of Edwards is Thomas Greenwood, *Edward Edwards, the Chief Pioneer of Municipal Public Libraries* (London: Scott, Greenwood & Co., 1902). See also Oskar Thyregod, *Die Kulturfunktion der Bibliothek* (Haag: Martinus Nijhoff, 1936), pp. 101-3.

³⁵ Edwards, *op. cit.*, II, 163-243.

would not find elsewhere in more complete form.³⁶

Ten years later Edwards brought forth another volume on the history of libraries—his *Free Town Libraries*, appearing in 1869.³⁷ Again the material is predominantly British, but the section dealing with the United States, though limited in scope, marks a distinct advance over the earlier work. Edwards begins his discussion with the bequest, in 1700, of the private library of Rev. John Sharp to the city of New York, for the foundation of a public library, and the eventual conversion of that collection into a proprietary library. He then turns to the Logonian Library of Philadelphia and its consolidation with Franklin's Library Company. Collegiate and school libraries, the use of the school collections as parish and township libraries, and, finally, the reversion in recent years to municipal responsibility for library support, all receive some attention. Nor did Edwards forget the emerging library movement in the hinterland beyond the Alleghenies, for he stressed particularly the situation in Ohio and Indiana, drawing his material largely from Rhees's *Manual*. In the main, however, his attention is focused upon the Boston Public Library and the Astor Library of New York, the his-

tories of both these institutions being presented in considerable detail.

Edwards' main sources were Jewett and Rhees, together with such published reports of individual libraries as were available to him. Today his work is not important to the historian of the library movement, but at the time of its appearance it probably represented a useful compilation of existing knowledge. At least, his was an early attempt to see American library history in terms of the whole and as a definite cultural movement, and he may very well have left the contemporary reader with something akin to a real feeling for the larger aspects implicit in the growth of American libraries.

IV. THE REPORT OF 1876

The historical approach was inherent in the editorial plan for the justly famous *Report* of 1876.³⁸ The Preface to it says in part:

After considerable study of the subject and consultation and correspondence with eminent librarians, the following plan was adopted: To present, first, the history of public libraries in the United States; second, to show their present condition and extent; third, to discuss the various questions of library economy and management; and fourth, to present as complete statistical information of all classes of public libraries as practicable.³⁹

The editors further add that it was deemed advisable to treat the historical material generally, and by type of library, rather than to emulate Jewett and Rhees by giving historical accounts of each individual institution.

Horace E. Scudder was selected to

³⁶ As evidence of the superficiality of Edwards' treatment, witness his discussion of the Boston Athenaeum, which he has drawn from Jewett's sketch without even taking the trouble to go back to Quincy's *History*, published almost a decade before the work of Edwards appeared. It is also to be noted that even Garnett's praise is not unqualified, as he points out that much of the statistical data collected by Edwards is not reliable.

³⁷ *Free Town Libraries, Their Formation, Management, and History, in Britain, France, Germany, and America, Together with Brief Notices of Book Collectors and of the Respective Places of Deposit of Their Surviving Collections* (London: Trübner & Co., 1869). See especially Book III, "Free Town Libraries in America," pp. 269-343.

³⁸ United States Bureau of Education, *Public Libraries in the United States of America, Their History, Condition, and Management: Special Report* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1876).

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p. xiii.

prepare the initial chapter on "Public Libraries a Hundred Years Ago." Scudder begins by pointing out the relationship between the public library and public education, and the necessity that the development of the former wait upon the extension of the latter. He further suggests that the growth of the library may be regarded as a kind of index to the state of public opinion on the subject of culture. Thus, for a brief period, the modern reader anticipates a real attempt to link the library movement with coeval social phenomena, only to be disappointed when Scudder soon drops back into the accepted pattern of presenting library history as a mere skeletal sequence—a chronicling of events surrounding the formation of individual collections.

Yet Scudder's survey is the most extensive and nearly complete of any up to that time, and its weaknesses are the same as those of the other contributors who wrote about the libraries of theology, law, the government, prisons, and all the rest. Much less concerned than he with the historical approach, they quickly gloss over institutional antecedents and pass on to a consideration of the condition of the libraries at the time of writing. Minute scrutiny of the deficiencies of the individual parts of the 1876 *Report* renders disparagement easy, but viewed in the large, as a well-rounded whole, there can be no doubt that the compilation represents a landmark in the writing of library history. Certainly it was much more extensive in scope and pretentious in plan than anything attempted up to the time of its projection. That it achieved a certain degree of success in presenting to the reader a picture of the expansion of the library movement into many phases of contemporary life cannot be denied.

Neither before nor since has American librarianship produced so nearly complete a survey of the state of professional knowledge. Much of what is written today with all the freshness and enthusiasm of novelty may be found in the essays of this compilation. A monument to the greatness of American library pioneers, within these eleven hundred pages are combined both historical writing as such and the *materia historica* of the future investigator. After three-quarters of a century the practicing librarian can still read it with profit, and the historian of American librarianship dare not ignore it.

V. JUSTIN WINSOR

Of the three historians who, between 1850 and 1900, were writing about libraries—Quincy, Scudder, and Winsor—doubtless the reputation of the last is most secure. A true historian in his own right, as well as the only one of the three who was a practicing librarian, Justin Winsor's main contributions to American library historiography are a series of four essays published in the *Literary World* in 1879, a chapter on libraries in his *Memorial History of Boston* (1881), and an address at the dedication (1894) of a new library building for Northwestern University.⁴⁰ In addition, his *Narrative*

⁴⁰ "The Beginnings of Our Public Library System," *Literary World*, X (1879), 121-22; "M. Vattemare and the Public Library System," *ibid.*, pp. 185-86; "The Results of Vattemare's Library Scheme," *ibid.*, pp. 281-82; "The Library Movement Thirty Years Ago," *ibid.*, pp. 330-31; "Libraries in Boston," in his *Memorial History of Boston, Including Suffolk County, Massachusetts, 1630-1880* (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co., 1880-81), IV, 279-94; and "The Development of the Library: Address at the Dedication of the Orrington Lunt Library, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.," *Library Journal*, XIX (1894), 370-75. See also his semihistorical article, "The Boston Public Library," *Scribner's Monthly* [later *Century Magazine*], III (1871-72), 150-56.

and *Critical History of America*⁴¹ contains scattered references to the development of libraries. By way of evaluation, suffice it to say that his contributions follow the pattern established by his predecessors and that he places particular emphasis upon the growth of the Boston Public Library and the influence of Vattemare. Teggart, writing in the *Library Journal* in 1897, says: "Professor Justin Winsor seems to have been one who, at a time, had dreams of being the historian of American libraries."⁴² But the present writer is unable to find any other evidence that Winsor ever gave such a "dream" serious consideration.⁴³ Rather, it is surprising that, being a librarian of prominence and influence, first at the Boston Public Library and later at Harvard, as well as an historian of acknowledged reputation, he did not combine the two interests and write more extensively of library history. The reasons for such neglect are probably to be found in the absence of sufficient historical perspective on American libraries at the time Winsor

was doing most of his work—a limitation that he as a professional historian would quickly recognize—and a preoccupation with a multitude of other activities which he may have considered more worthy of his effort.

Finally, it is relevant to recall that Winsor is today remembered by historians not so much for his historical writings or interpretations as for the great mass of source materials he unearthed.⁴⁴ Quite rightly Channing said of him that he "made the scientific study of American history possible by making available the rich mines of material."⁴⁵

VI. WILLIAM I. FLETCHER

Less than twenty years after the publication of the 1876 *Report*, William I. Fletcher, then librarian of Amherst College, began the initial chapter of his *Public Libraries in America* with these sentences:

The public library of today, like other social institutions, is the result of a long evolution. In one sense a creation of the nineteenth century, not to say of its latter half, in another and truer sense it is but a normal development from its predecessors.⁴⁶

On the next page he asks rhetorically:

But when did the public library movement begin? . . . Apparently it waited for that child of the Reformation, whose ominous name is Revolution, to turn the key which should open libraries to the people. For surely the spirit of the Revolution, in its sanest manifestation, moved BENJAMIN FRANKLIN and other men of his kind in their thinking and acting on political and social subjects; and probably with FRANKLIN, more than any other, originated the impetus to this movement.

Fletcher maintains, and quite rightly so, that it was the subscription libraries that

⁴¹ Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1884-89. For library material see the Index under "Americana." Winsor also has some claim to consideration by virtue of his collection of statistics of libraries in America and Europe which he published in the seventeenth annual report of the Boston Public Library (1869).

⁴² Frederick J. Teggart, "On the Literature of Library History," *Library Journal*, XXII (1897), C38.

⁴³ Teggart, himself a librarian at Leland Stanford University, might possibly have obtained such a conception direct from Winsor. Biographical material on Winsor is astonishingly scarce for a figure so prominent. The best sources are Edward Channing, "Justin Winsor," *American Historical Review*, III (1897-98), 197-202; Horace E. Scudder, "Memorial of Justin Winsor, LL.D.," *Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society*, XII (2d ser., 1899), 457-82; the biographical sketch by James Truslow Adams in the *Dictionary of American Biography*; and William F. Yust, *A Bibliography of Justin Winsor* (Cambridge: Harvard University Library, 1902).

⁴⁴ Kraus, *op. cit.*, p. 579.

⁴⁵ Channing, *op. cit.*, p. 198.

⁴⁶ (Boston: Roberts Bros., 1894), p. 9.

were the true progenitors of the modern public library, and he continues:

It is quite common to look upon the later movement by which libraries came to be supported by public funds derived from taxation as marking the beginnings of the public library. In one sense this view is correct; but when it is noted how naturally and inevitably the public library of FRANKLIN's institution has grown into the more recent form, it is easy to perceive that in the establishment of these subscription libraries, the public-library movement really began. From the first these institutions were for the benefit, not of the few, but of the many. In most cases the fees were so small that they were supposed not to deter any from joining the association.⁴⁷

He sees the public library as an outgrowth of the spread of popular education and as closely allied to the lyceum lecture system.

Not much was said in those days about socialism, but it was really a long step in the direction of true socialism when the public library was added to the public school as a State function. It was a recognition of the claims of the masses for all that the body politic can do to enlighten and elevate them,—a recognition, in fact, of that solidarity in the body politic by virtue of which, if one member suffer, all the members suffer with it.⁴⁸

One would scarcely acclaim this as a Marxist interpretation of the origin of the public library movement, but it was a decided innovation. Here for the first time was a real attempt to view the library historically as a social agency, conditioned by and emanating from its social milieu.⁴⁹ He pictures the appear-

ance and spread of public libraries not in atomistic terms of specially created and independent units but as causally related and integrated social phenomena. Fletcher has, indeed, come close to a sociological interpretation without actually developing his ideas. His was an entirely new concept of library origins—embryonic, to be sure, yet nevertheless a real preliminary attempt to examine past events in the light of social causation. It had not been done before; it was not to be undertaken again for nearly forty years.

VII. OTHER NINETEENTH-CENTURY MATERIALS

The nineteenth century cannot be dismissed without passing reference to the ninth *Report* of the Massachusetts Public Library Commission.⁵⁰ Published in 1899, it followed the Jewett-Rhees tradition, though limited to Massachusetts, by presenting alphabetically by towns the history and current status of their several libraries. The *Report* differs from its predecessors, however, mainly by its inclusion of *all* known public and quasi-public libraries whether extant at the time of compilation or not, whereas the Smithsonian reports were predominantly concerned with operating institutions.

Nor would this section of the survey be complete without at least casual mention of the histories of libraries in local

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 14. See also William I. Fletcher, "The Proprietary Library in Relation to the Public Library Movement," *Library Journal*, XXXI (1906), C268-72.

⁴⁹ This does not mean that Fletcher was the first to consider the library as a social agency or even to apply the specific term "social institution" to it. Josiah P. Quincy, grandson of the historian of the Athenaeum, had referred to the library as a "social institution" in 1876, in his *The Protection of Ma-*

jorities (Boston: Roberts Bros., 1876), p. 105. In the same year he again referred to it as "the one secular institution which encourages self-development as an aim" ("Free Libraries," in the *Report* of 1876, p. 390). Fletcher's contribution rests on the fact that he was the first to see the historical emergence of the library as a sociological phenomenon.

⁵⁰ *Ninth Report of the Public Library Commission of Massachusetts, 1899* (Public Document No. 44 [Boston: Wright & Potter Printing Co., 1899]).

history compilations which were particularly important in the New England area. These were prepared by scores of individuals of widely varying degrees of historical competence, but, in general, prior to the twentieth century and before the entrance of commercial exploitation into the local history field, their contents are factually reliable and not unimportant.⁵¹ The material on libraries therein contained varies tremendously in length and detail from mere passing reference to such extensive treatment as that of Samuel Swett Green for Worcester, Massachusetts.⁵² Their great merit so far as the historian of library development is concerned lies in the fact that their authors were themselves often active in library promotion in the towns about which they were writing and not infrequently could speak from firsthand knowledge of the events set forth. Though the approach is generally from the point of view of the antiquarian, these bulky volumes are a well-stocked hunting ground for the library historian in search of factual information available in no other printed form.

VIII. THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

The same tendencies apparent in the nineteenth century continued through the first three decades of the twentieth. If there was any change, it found expression in a slight lessening of interest in historical compilations and general

surveys of library expansion and an increasing impulse to write factual histories of individual institutions. Some of the latter were "occasional" history, strongly motivated by a desire to celebrate anniversaries, centennials, or other commemorative events.⁵³ Since the main characteristics of the writing in this period are essentially identical with those of the preceding century, there is little of value to be derived from a detailed discussion of the specific works. It will suffice here to point out a few of the more important productions.

Before the century began George C. Mason had issued his *Annals of the Redwood Library and Athenaeum*, which, after the passing of a half-century, is still the definitive account of that important association.⁵⁴ In 1900 James F. Brennan wrote of the Peterborough Town Library,⁵⁵ and four years later appeared William Dawson Johnston's *History of the Library of Congress*,⁵⁶ of which only the first volume, covering the years 1800 to 1864, was ever published. Regrettably, an adequate history of our national library, especially for the post-Civil War period, still remains to be

⁵¹ Good examples of this are *The Athenaeum Centenary: The Influence and History of the Boston Athenaeum from 1807 to 1907, with a Record of Its Officers and Benefactors, and a Complete List of Proprietors* (Boston: Boston Athenaeum, 1907), and *One Hundred and Seventy-fifth Anniversary of the Incorporation of the Redwood Library* (Newport, R.I.: Redwood Library, 1922).

⁵⁴ Newport, R.I.: Redwood Library, 1891.

⁵⁵ "Peterborough Town Library: The Pioneer Public Library," *Granite Monthly*, XXVIII (1900), 281-91. A further account appeared at the centennial celebration in 1933 with George Abbot Morison's address before the New Hampshire Library Association (*The Centenary of the Establishment of Public Libraries and the Forty-fourth Annual Meeting of the New Hampshire Library Association, Held in the Unitarian Church and Parish House, Peterborough, New Hampshire, August 22-24, 1933*, pp. 5-27).

⁵⁶ Washington: Government Printing Office, 1904.

⁵² By "local" histories are meant both town and county histories; though as far as the libraries are concerned they all really reduce to town histories, since most of the county histories, though prefaced by a certain amount of information relating to the county as a whole, are largely collections of the histories of the individual towns.

⁵³ "Public Libraries [in Worcester]," in D. Hamilton Hurd (comp.), *History of Worcester County, Massachusetts* (Philadelphia: J. W. Lewis & Co., 1889), II, 1491-1509.

written.⁵⁷ In 1908 Keep's *History of the New York Society Library*, with its important preliminary chapter on the history of libraries in Colonial New York, came from the press of De Vinne.⁵⁸ In 1911 appeared Horace G. Wadlin's standard history of the Boston Public Library,⁵⁹ to be followed in 1923 by Lydenberg's substantial volume on the New York Public Library.⁶⁰ Philadelphia, too, was receiving its share of attention with Lewis' account of the Apprentices' Library (1924)⁶¹ and Gray's book about Franklin's Library Company (1936).⁶² Certain areas, as well as individual institutions, were being examined historically. Typical of this interest in regional library history were: *Legislative History of Township Libraries in Michigan* (1902);⁶³ George Watson Cole (1927) and Frank L. Tolman (1937) on library de-

velopment in New York State;⁶⁴ Part I, "Libraries," of Stephen B. Weeks's "Libraries and Literature in North Carolina in the Eighteenth Century" (1895);⁶⁵ and studies of the work of the Reverend Thomas Bray in the establishment of parish libraries in the colonies along the Atlantic Coast.⁶⁶ During this same period were also published a few sporadic biographies and memoirs of librarians. In 1913 appeared the reminiscences of Samuel Swett Green. The title, *The Public Library Movement*, is deceptive, for it is scarcely more than a chronological presentation of library events during the life of the author.⁶⁷ As Green was an active participant in the formation, in 1876, of the American Library Association, and at its first convention read a paper on the "Personal Relations between Librarians and Readers,"⁶⁸ such a compilation could have been highly useful were the book not so disappointing in its failure to contribute

⁵⁷ Lucy Salamanca's recent journalistic account of the Library of Congress is at best only an unreliable and superficial treatment. Though she does not mention Johnston, Miss Salamanca leans heavily upon his work for the material in the first half of her book (*Fortress of Freedom: The Story of the Library of Congress* [Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1942]).

⁵⁸ Austin B. Keep, *History of the New York Society Library, with an Introductory Chapter on Libraries in Colonial New York, 1698-1776* (New York: De Vinne Press for the Trustees, 1908).

⁵⁹ *The Public Library of the City of Boston: A History* (Boston: Trustees of the Public Library, 1911).

⁶⁰ Harry Miller Lydenberg, *History of the New York Public Library: Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Foundations* (New York: New York Public Library, 1923).

⁶¹ John F. Lewis, *History of the Apprentices' Library of Philadelphia, 1820-1920, the Oldest Free Circulating Library in America* (Philadelphia, 1924).

⁶² Austin K. Gray, *Benjamin Franklin's Library: A Short Account of the Library Company of Philadelphia* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1937). This was first printed in 1936 under the misleading and inaccurate title "The First American Library."

⁶³ L. M. Miller (comp.), *Legislative History of Township Libraries in the State of Michigan from 1835 to 1901* (Lansing: R. Smith Printing Co. for the Board of Library Commissioners, 1902).

⁶⁴ Cole, *Early Library Development in New York State (1800 to 1900)* (New York: New York Public Library, 1927); Tolman, "Libraries and Lyceums," in Alexander D. Flick (ed.), *History of the State of New York* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1937), IX, 47-91.

⁶⁵ In *Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the Year 1895* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1896), pp. 171-224.

⁶⁶ Bernard C. Steiner, "Rev. Thomas Bray and His American Libraries," *American Historical Review*, II (1896-97), 59-75; William D. Houlette, "Parish Libraries and the Work of the Reverend Thomas Bray," *Library Quarterly*, IV (1934), 588-609 (leans heavily on Steiner); Bernard Steiner (ed.), *Rev. Thomas Bray: His Life and Selected Works Relating to Maryland* (Baltimore: Maryland Historical Society, 1901). Another southern library receiving historical attention was the Charlestown Library Society. See "Original Rules and Members of the Charlestown Library Society," *South Carolina Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, XXIII (1922), 163-70.

⁶⁷ *The Public Library Movement in the United States, 1853-1893* (Boston: Boston Book Co., 1913).

⁶⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

much of value to the historian's store of basic data.

In 1924 the American Library Association inaugurated, with the publication of Lydenberg's *John Shaw Billings*, a series of biographical sketches of American library pioneers, of which to date six titles have appeared.⁶⁹ This series is too limited in scope and treatment to be very satisfactory as historical data. The need is great for a number of scholarly monographs that will really interpret the lives of American library pioneers, but for the present these sketches are, for Cutter, Green, Brett, Dana, and Dewey, the best that the profession can offer.⁷⁰

Other biographies of varying length have appeared from time to time, but none of these has been definitive.⁷¹ Frank Kingdon's narration of the life of John Cotton Dana is in the tradition of the "American Library Pioneers" series.⁷² Grosvenor Dawe's biography of Melvil Dewey is an incredibly sentimental per-

formance that beggars description.⁷³ The perspective on Dewey and his work is now sufficiently great to make possible a sane appraisal of his contribution to American librarianship. Perhaps only the psychologist is adequately equipped to study the origins of that excessive devotion to Dewey which, during the early years of the present century, so hampered the growth of a true professionalism in library affairs.

As to general histories of the library movement, the years between 1900 and 1930 were as sterile and unproductive as the preceding century. Herbert B. Adams occasionally included historical material in his *Public Libraries and Popular Education*,⁷⁴ but his treatment is slight. In view of his work as a professional historian, his indifference to the historical relationships between the public library and movements for popular education is surprising. Ainsworth Rand Spofford presented a brief survey of library history in his *A Book for All Readers* (1900).⁷⁵ In the 1910 and subsequent editions Arthur E. Bostwick prefaced his *American Public Library* with a historical section,⁷⁶ and the American Library Association included two pamphlets on library history, both by Bolton of the Athenaeum, in its series of manuals on library economy.⁷⁷ But none

⁶⁹ Harry Miller Lydenberg, *John Shaw Billings, Creator of the National Medical Library and Its Catalogue, First Director of the New York Public Library* (1924); Robert Kendall Shaw, *Samuel Swett Green* (1926); William Parker Cutter, *Charles Ammi Cutter* (1931); Linda A. Eastman, *Portraits of a Librarian: William Howard Brett* (1940); Chalmers Hadley, *John Cotton Dana* (1943); Fremont Rider, *Melvil Dewey* (1944).

⁷⁰ The standard life of Billings is Fielding H. Garrison, *John Shaw Billings: A Memoir* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915).

⁷¹ Harry Miller Lydenberg, "A Forgotten Trail Blazer [Joseph Green Cogswell]," in William Warner Bishop and Andrew Keogh (eds.), *Essays Offered to Herbert Putnam by His Colleagues and Friends on His Thirtieth Anniversary as Librarian of Congress, 5 April 1929* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1929), pp. 302-14; Carl B. Roden, "The Boston Years of Dr. W. F. Poole," *ibid.*, pp. 388-94; J. F. Teggart, "An Early Champion of Free Libraries [Jesse Torrey]," *Library Journal*, XXIII (1898), 617-18; William A. Slade, "As It Was in the Beginning [Ainsworth Rand Spofford]," *Public Libraries*, XXIX (1924), 293-96.

⁷² *John Cotton Dana: A Life* (Newark, N.J.: Public Library and Museum, 1940).

⁷³ *Melvil Dewey: Seer, Inspirer, Doer, 1851-1931* (Lake Placid, N.Y.: Lake Placid Club, 1932).

⁷⁴ "Home Education Bulletins," No. 31 [Albany: University of the State of New York, 1900].

⁷⁵ (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1900), pp. 295-320.

⁷⁶ (4th ed. rev.; New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929), chap. ii, "Library Growth and Development in the United States," pp. 5-19.

⁷⁷ Charles K. Bolton, *American Library History* (1919) and *Proprietary and Subscription Libraries* (1917). Bolton had previously written of early social and circulating libraries in two excellent short treatments for the Colonial Society of Massachusetts: "Social Libraries in Boston," *Publications of the*

of these even pretends to be an important contribution to the literature of the field.

One should not dismiss the writing of library history during this period without at least passing mention of a projected work which never reached completion. During the early years of the century an antiquarian, James Terry of Terryville, Connecticut, began the collection of materials for a study of early library development in the thirteen original states. To this end he brought together, through correspondence and travel, a considerable collection of library records and notes, including the minutes of meetings of library proprietors, catalogs of books, and constitutions of library societies; all of which, after his death, were deposited in the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester. His data are most nearly complete for the New England states, especially Connecticut. He knew of the Trumbull manuscripts at Yale and took much information from them. Viewed from the standpoint of sound historical research, his methods were not always the best; yet he assembled a quantity of information that the historian should not overlook.⁷⁸

Such was the writing of library history during the decades intervening between the work of Josiah Quincy and, approximately, the beginning of the 1930's. Throughout the later years its

scope became broader but not much deeper. It was impressive neither in quantity nor in quality. On occasion it is doubtful whether it should be called "history," for the writing of true history involves synthesis—evaluation and interpretation of relationships, not just a chronological recital of isolated facts. Factual, and factual only, this writing certainly was, and as such it can scarcely be classified into any "historical school." Because its main object was to record the remote event, it contained little analysis or interpretation. This recitation of historic facts revealed a continuing picture of library expansion and development, and there was a didactic impulse, probably quite unconscious, to contrast the library poverty of an earlier day with the relative prosperity of a later time.

At the turn of the century and after, American librarianship entered its professional adolescence. Extremely conscious of its own youth, awkwardness, and rapid growth, it was, nevertheless, quite proud of its approaching maturity—proud, too, to have cast aside the remnants of its infancy. As librarians began to feel this new satisfaction in their professional accomplishments, the urge to point with pride to the contrast between the struggles of the pioneers and the permanence of contemporary achievement became irresistible. Such contrasts did not discredit the work of the founding fathers but emphasized anew the solidity of the structure they had built. Historical narrative, therefore, could give meaning to the efforts of the librarians and, in a sense, become an apologia for their labors. When they viewed in retrospect the progress they had made, they could see themselves as a part of the heritage of a growing nation and identify themselves with the

Colonial Society of Massachusetts, XII (1908-9), 332-38, and "Circulating Libraries in Boston, 1765-1865," *ibid.*, XI (1906-7), 196-207. The treatment of circulating libraries is particularly good.

⁷⁸ There is some evidence that Terry planned to include the history of libraries in states other than the original thirteen and may even have thought in terms of a history of libraries for the entire country. Probably the best part of his collection is that which includes the early records, minutes, catalogs, and charge books of the individual libraries.

strengthening intellectual fiber of American culture.

But there were influences other than this self-justification that were helping to determine the character of the library historiography during this period. Inherent in the rapid growth and immaturity of the profession was an absence of historical perspective that denied objectivity. Librarians were themselves insufficiently removed temporally from the events of which they wrote to be able to see them steadily and see them whole. The very expansion of the profession and the constant demands for technical improvement precluded concern with a receding past. The old scholarly librarian of the nineteenth century was passing from the scene, and in his place came administrators and organizers, and others like them, who were acutely aware of the needs of the present but generally indifferent to the links with the past. A new age of preoccupation with the techniques and economics of the profession had begun, and there was little time for reflecting on or investigating origins.

Neglect of the librarian by the professional historian is equally explainable, for new forces were making themselves felt in American historiography, and historians were busy with a reconsideration of older values. With the passing of the nineteenth century came the new history, bringing reaction against the intellectual sterility of *laissez faire* and bankrupt conservatism. The influence of von Ranke and his insistence upon the narration of past events as they actually happened—*wie es eigentlich gewesen*—had waned, and for it was substituted the philosophy of another German, Lamprecht, who, touring America, was preaching a concept of history in terms of conflict between the individual psyche and the social psyche and the importance

of the *Zeitgeist* to historical interpretation. There was a growing distrust of the "cold historic fact." The facts of history began to assume a relative position as individual entities in a larger whole. They came, as Carl Becker said, "in the end to seem something solid, something substantial like physical matter, something possessing definite shape and clear, persistent outline—like bricks and scantlings; so that we can easily picture the historian as he stumbles about in the past, stubbing his toe on the hard facts if he doesn't watch out."⁷⁹

The fact was seen as a symbol, a simple statement, a generalization composed of a myriad of simpler facts and itself a part of a larger generalization inseparable from the wider facts or generalizations which it symbolized. The impact of an increasing body of scientific knowledge and the groundwork of Darwin and Huxley was still present, but it was an influence of a different sort. Gone was the romantic faith in the scientific concept of a causal and necessary evolution of history, and in its place was a new humanitarianism and a new optimism born of scientific achievement; a new belief in the possibility of progress rooted in the renaissance of science and education. There was an increasing Marxian emphasis on the historical importance of the masses. Finally, there was the pragmatic motif of James and Dewey, introducing tolerance into historical writing. Refuting animism, the pragmatist found himself asserting either the inherent interdependence of the several aspects of history, and hence the invalidity of their isolation, or the conviction that though all aspects are in-

⁷⁹ Unpublished address before the American Historical Association at Rochester, N.Y., in December, 1926, quoted extensively by Harry Elmer Barnes in his *A History of Historical Writing* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937), p. 267.

terwoven, ultimately they are expressions of but one—the economic.⁸⁰ In the wake of these new currents came the need to re-examine American history. Turner analyzed the influence of the frontier and Beard the economic interests represented by those who favored the adoption of the Constitution; Ulrich B. Phillips, a disciple of Dunning and Turner, applied the thesis of the latter to a reconsideration of the South; and slightly later came such historical series as the Yale "Chronicles of America," and the unfinished "History of American Life," edited by Schlesinger and Fox.⁸¹ The new historians were laying a foundation of sound scholarship upon which, as will be shown later, an objective consideration of library origins might rest; but in this reappraisal itself the library was neglected.

IX. THE NEW LIBRARY HISTORY

Then, in 1931, there appeared in the pages of the first volume of the *Library Quarterly*, a harbinger of a new phase in library historiography—Arnold Borden's brief but provocative essay on "The Sociological Beginnings of the Library Movement in America."⁸² Borden, who, as a student at Harvard, was doubtless influenced by current social theory, sought to turn the findings of these new investigations upon the library as a type of social phenomenon. He held the rapid growth of libraries between 1850 and

1890 to have been the result of three major forces: first, the promotional work of the federal government as exemplified by the activities of the Smithsonian Institution and the Bureau of Education; second, the nourishing influence of philanthropy; and, third, and most significant of all, the power of an expanding democracy. For Borden the library was, above all else, a result of the growing demand during the nineteenth century for popular education, of the rising economic status of the working classes, of the shortened working day and a resultant increase in leisure, with universal manhood suffrage as the crystallizing force. In short, he was taking up the democratic theme where Fletcher, to whom he refers, had left it almost forty years before. Borden did not develop his theories to any considerable extent; his paper was little more than a prefatory note. Reconsidered a decade later, his thesis sounds almost platitudinous—so far has thought about library origins advanced in that time. But the present writer is not able to forget the impact on his own thinking of Borden's concluding paragraph:

Students of library history, therefore, must not look upon the library as an isolated phenomenon or as something which has been struck off the brains of individuals in moments of philanthropic zeal. The universal emergence of the library as a public institution between 1850 and 1890 suggests the presence of common causes working to a common end. From the point of view of history as well as from that of contemporary conditions the library needs to be studied in the light of sociology, economics, and other branches of human knowledge.⁸³

The exact extent of Borden's influence is difficult to determine. Certainly the multitude of references to his essay in subsequent writing testifies that at least it was widely read. But in the

⁸⁰ See Charles A. Beard, *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1941), chap. i, "Historical Interpretation in the United States."

⁸¹ See the Foreword in Arthur M. Schlesinger, *New Viewpoints in American History* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1922). A criticism of this type of historical writing is to be found in Allan Nevins, *The Gateway to History* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938), p. 271.

⁸² *Library Quarterly*, I (1931), 278-82.

⁸³ *Ibid.*, p. 282.

final analysis his article would seem to be indicative rather than influential. Borden's piece was the first indication that thinking about library history had begun to recapitulate the thinking about history in general. The new concepts of the social philosophers were beginning to percolate downward into the librarians' own little cosmos. Intensified by the encroachment of the economic depression of the 1930's, the influence of social forces upon the library became more and more pronounced. The accelerated rate of library expansion that characterized the years following the close of the first World War began slowly to decline; librarians were of necessity growing increasingly aware of the importance of social theory and their relation to it. As income began to shrink and curtailment of services became imperative, librarians were compelled to look upon their institution as being inherently related to the welfare of the supporting social fabric. Even before Ballard and Martin proclaimed the library to be a social institution,⁸⁴ the concept had begun to take shape in professional thinking, and Borden was the first to give it a historical interpretation.

In the following year Borden again published in the *Quarterly* a historical study, limited this time to a consideration of seventeenth-century American libraries. But he did not follow the high ideals he had previously proposed. He set forth the incidents surrounding the formation of the Harvard College library, described the Keayne bequest of a "publick" library to Boston, and examined the private libraries of the Mathers and William Brewster—all

of which he found predominantly theological—as well as the more cavalier collections in the tidewater South. Yet the entirety of these collections meant to him, as to his predecessors, merely a manifestation "of the proud cultural traditions that hovered in the background of all the colonists."⁸⁵ He expressed surprise over the discovery that "a community necessarily preoccupied with blazing paths through the American jungle can account for itself so well in the matter of books,"⁸⁶ forgetting that the Mathers and the Brewsters, far from being concerned with the opening of the West, were precursors of a Tory aristocracy that almost a century later threatened to divide a struggling nation. Thus Borden fell a victim to those very faults which previously he had deplored in others and discovered, as Teggart says of Winsor, that "it is easier to write the history of libraries in pre-library days."⁸⁷

In 1933 appeared Pierce Butler's *Introduction to Library Science*, in which is included a chapter on "The Historical Problem."⁸⁸ Butler, as a student of James Harvey Robinson and other leaders in the history field, was well trained in the new historical methods that were receiving much attention during the early years of the century. These he has applied to a consideration of the historical problem as it relates to the library. He attempts to get beyond the platitude of the existence of the book as a physical artifact possible only in a civilized society to the recognition that every major

⁸⁵ Arnold K. Borden, "Seventeenth-Century American Libraries," *Library Quarterly*, II (1932), 147.

⁸⁶ *Ibid.*

⁸⁷ Frederick J. Teggart, *loc. cit.*

⁸⁸ (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933), chap. iv.

⁸⁴ Lloyd Vernor Ballard, *Social Institutions* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936), chap. xii, "The Public Library"; Lowell Martin, "The American Public Library as a Social Institution," *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 546-63.

change in the social ideal has produced an alteration in the constitution of the library. In the expansion of the library movement in America he discerns a motivation derivative from the rise of capitalism and the identification of social privilege with economic status, a "sentimental Victorian liberalism idealizing itself as Lady Bountiful," an "emotional response in the hearts of the American people," and a variety of personal factors constantly obtruding themselves in the causal train of historical development. Butler holds that a knowledge of library history has practical value for the librarian, since the librarian's interpretation of his official duties is in a great measure dependent upon his conceptions of the interrelationships of historical phenomena: "Librarianship, as we know it, can be fully apprehended only through an understanding of its historic origins."⁸⁸ Again, "it is obvious that the librarian's practice will be determined in part by his historical understanding,"⁸⁹ and "unless the librarian has a clear historical consciousness . . . he is quite certain at times to serve his community badly."⁹⁰ Thus has Butler thrown about his philosophical interpretation of library history a cloak of utilitarianism that may at times obscure the central problem. By implication, at least, his insistence upon the practical applications of historical knowledge has subordinated history to the operational objectives of library administration.

Douglas Waples, in his guide for investigators of library problems, finds the scope and benefits of historical criticism potentially the most comprehensive of any of the research procedures he de-

scribes.⁹¹ Centering his discussion about five publications selected with reference to their relation to the historical method as applied to research in librarianship,⁹² he shows them to be typical of as many kinds of historical study related to libraries:

(1) comprehensive criticisms of different historical phases of the library as an institution; (2) studies of particular elements of the library . . . to identify institutional trends; (3) analyses of present library policies and objectives in terms of the policies conspicuous in earlier stages of library development; (4) evaluations of library policy based on distinctions between policies shaped by contingent or accidental social influences and policies responding to perennial influences; and (5) studies of "the history of the problem" which are logically prerequisite to research in any field.⁹⁴

Such were the doctrinal bases of the new history of librarianship. The remaining task is to consider their expression in contemporary writings about the library as an historical phenomenon.

The case for philanthropic benevolence as the great motivating force in library development is stoutly championed by James H. Wellard.⁹⁵ Looking at American public library growth by the reflected light of conditions in Eng-

⁸⁸ *Investigating Library Problems* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), chap. vi, "Historical Criticism."

⁸⁹ The five titles are: Henri Berr and Lucien Febvre, "History," *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, VII, 357-68; Nevins, *op. cit.*, chap. iv, "One Mighty Torrent," chap. vii, "Pilgrimage on Evidence," and chap. viii, "Problems in History"; Butler, *op. cit.*, chap. iv; Martin, *op. cit.*; and Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates, *The Methodology of Educational Research* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936), chap. vi.

⁹⁰ Waples, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

⁹¹ *Book Selection: Its Principles and Practice* (London: Grafton & Co., 1937), chap. iv, "Trends in the American Public Library Movement during the Nineteenth Century," pp. 47-58; chap. v, "Summary and Interpretation of the Historical Findings," pp. 59-68.

⁸⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 81.

⁸⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 89-90.

⁹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 101.

land, he sees it not as a mass democratic movement from "below" inspired by the desires of the "common man" but as an imposition from "above" by a wealthy and paternalistic minority who knew what was best for the people and gave it to them despite popular apathy:

If the data of the historical introduction and our interpretation of them are correct, it was not definite, articulated "social forces" which brought the public library into being so much as the efforts of progressive and philanthropic citizens who foresaw the need of such an institution before the people themselves did. . . . "The voting strength of the people," for instance, is not apparent in the establishment of British public libraries; to the contrary, the electorate as a whole seemed comparatively indifferent.⁹⁶

The influence of the Carnegie endowments was used to clinch the argument. But Wellard neglects to point out that the library movement had its roots deep in the first half of the nineteenth century and even many years earlier. Libraries were spreading rapidly over America long before 1900, whereas, as Learned has shown, Carnegie grants for library buildings numbered but fourteen prior to 1898, as contrasted to over sixteen hundred library buildings erected with Carnegie funds subsequent to that date.⁹⁷ In other words, Wellard, who was generalizing from only the English pattern, failed to recognize that philanthropic bequests did not create a need for libraries; they merely helped to alleviate a demand that already existed.

A quite different aspect of the prob-

⁹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 60. Reference should also be made to Wellard's later book, *The Public Library Comes of Age* (London: Grafton & Co., 1940), Part I: "The Public Library as a Social Force" and Part II: "The Sociology of the Public Library."

⁹⁷ William S. Learned, *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1924), p. 71 and table following p. 72.

lem has been presented by Sidney Ditzion,⁹⁸ who sees the library as at least partially the result of increasing urbanization, the need of laborers for technical and recreational reading, and the desire of the mill-owner to increase, by education, the skill of the foreign-born worker. All such forces implicit in an expanding industrial society Ditzion sees tapped by those interested in gaining extensive support for popular education and public libraries through rationalistic and emotional appeals that pictured the library as the savior of youth, a competitor of the grogshop, a potent enemy of crime.⁹⁹ The growth of the library is seen essentially as resulting from a fundamental democratic need of contemporary society crystallized into reality by the opportunism of public leaders. Within its self-imposed limits the study is carefully developed and well documented. That it fails to present a complete picture the author himself would be the first to admit. To link the library with the extension of the educational system is certainly valid, for, though the growth of libraries necessarily lagged behind the establishment of schools, the two were undeniably related. The only objection that might be raised is that the study describes a relationship rather than explains a motivation. In a sense, it begs the question by making the problem more difficult because less selective. In short, it substitutes for the desire to discover the social forces creating the li-

⁹⁸ "The Public Library Movement in the United States as It Was Influenced by the Needs of the Wage-Earner, 1850-1900" (unpublished A.M. thesis, College of the City of New York, 1938); "Social Reform, Education, and the Library, 1850-1900," *Library Quarterly*, IX (1939), 156-84.

⁹⁹ "Mechanics' and Mercantile Libraries," *Library Quarterly*, X (1940), 192-219; "The District-School Library, 1835-55," *ibid.*, 545-77; "The Social Ideals of a Library Pioneer: Josephus Nelson Larned, 1836-1913," *ibid.*, XIII (1943), 113-31.

brary a necessity for determining the forces that brought into being both the school and the library. Nevertheless, Ditzion's studies are the first important attempts to arrive at a real understanding of a few of the elements that help to explain library origins.

At this same time there appeared certain other writings which, if not directly in the current of the new history, were at least influenced by it and hence deserve mention here. Houlette reconsidered the work of the Reverend Thomas Bray and the parish libraries established through his influence, in an essay that draws heavily from standard treatments of the subject.¹⁰⁰ Hazel A. Johnson reviewed the life and professional contributions of John Cotton Dana in an article to which was appended an extensive and much-needed bibliography of his writings, prepared with the co-operation of Beatrice Winsor.¹⁰¹ Thomas E. Keys examined the collections of Colonial private libraries and found those in New England to be predominantly theologic, those in the central Atlantic area indicative of a more democratic spirit in their owners, and those in the Colonial South more cavalier.¹⁰² His conclusions, though they reflect the popular view that regional differences in reading habits were important, are based on quite incomparable data. Because he has contrasted the libraries of New England divines with secular collections in other parts of the Atlantic coastal area, his theories cannot be taken seriously.¹⁰³

¹⁰⁰ *Op. cit.*

¹⁰¹ "John Cotton Dana," *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 50-98.

¹⁰² "The Colonial Library and the Development of Sectional Differences in the American Colonies," *Library Quarterly*, VIII (1938), 373-90.

¹⁰³ Economic and social differentials were more important in determining reading habits than geo-

Louis Shores's doctoral dissertation, published in 1935 under the title *Origins of the American College Library, 1638-1800*,¹⁰⁴ is essentially, as far as library historiography is concerned, a hybrid form. The first portion of the book is a sketchy factual summary of the early history of each of the nine college libraries along the Atlantic seaboard,¹⁰⁵ considered in a manner reminiscent of the older history. But the remainder, and by far the greater portion, of the volume attempts to relate the development of the college library to the development of the curriculum, the objectives, and the administrative policies of the college itself. The book's weaknesses lie in its numerous errors of fact, its reliance upon sources of doubtful authenticity, and its failure to synthesize its array of material and to come to grips with the basic problem.¹⁰⁶ Historically, the development of the college library rested squarely upon the development of the college, and the one was dependent upon the other in the exact degree to which education was book-centered.

Other contributions to library history may be briefly noted. Joseph T. Wheeler,

graphic location. After the Mather period the reading tastes of New Englanders were strikingly like those in other parts of the country. The present writer has further considered the Keys theory in his review of Brown's *Sentimental Novel in America* (*Library Quarterly*, XII [1942], 133-36).

¹⁰⁴ "George Peabody College for Teachers Contributions to Education," No. 134 (New York: Barnes & Noble, 1935).

¹⁰⁵ The colleges included are Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Brown, Rutgers, and Dartmouth.

¹⁰⁶ "Apparently to Mr. Shores a library of five thousand volumes is just a library of five thousand volumes; the titles and contents of the volumes, or how or by whom they were used, are matters of secondary importance" (review by Samuel Eliot Morison in *New England Quarterly*, VIII [1935], 430-31).

in his doctoral dissertation on "Literary Culture in Colonial Maryland, 1700-1776"¹⁰⁷ has much of importance to say about the early libraries, especially the circulating libraries, of that colony. Frank K. Walter considered the early Sunday-school libraries in a brief paper that throws much light on these neglected collections.¹⁰⁸ Monaghan and Lowenthal make interesting and important use of the circulation records of the New York Society Library in developing their presentation of social life and culture in New York City in 1789.¹⁰⁹ Herbert Ross Brown, in his account of the sentimental novel in America, shows the circulating library to be a most important agent for the distribution of popular fiction,¹¹⁰ and George G. Raddin analyzes the offerings of Caritat's Circulating Library in his *An Early New York Library of Fiction*.¹¹¹ One of the best presentations of library development in relation to the cultural and economic life of a single community appears in Harriet S. Tapley's *Salem Imprints, 1768-1825*,¹¹² where the early libraries of

Salem, Massachusetts, are studied in some detail, with emphasis on their evolution from the cultural environment. Finally, it appears that those interested in the historical emergence of the library in this country are becoming interested in the sources for historical research in the library field. Nathaniel Stewart's "Sources for the Study of American College Library History, 1800-1876,"¹¹³ devotes far too much attention to only secondary sources¹¹⁴ but nevertheless is indicative of a growing desire of those writing about library history to evaluate the accuracy of their data.

But the fullest expression of the new tendencies in the writing of library history is to be found in two studies. One is the opening chapter of Carleton B. Joeckel's *Government of the American Public Library*¹¹⁵ and the other Gwladys Spencer's dissertation on the origins of the Chicago Public Library.¹¹⁶ Joeckel's primary concern is, of course, with the rise and development of governmental relationships and administrative functions, but these are so inextricably intertwined with other factors that to consider a part necessarily involves some attention to the whole. The opening sentences of the book are most significant:

¹⁰⁷ Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Brown University, 1938.

¹⁰⁸ "A Poor but Respectable Relation—the Sunday-school Library," *Library Quarterly*, XII (1942), 731-39.

¹⁰⁹ Frank Monaghan and Marvin Lowenthal, *This Was New York: The Nation's Capital in 1789* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1943), pp. 147-67.

¹¹⁰ *The Sentimental Novel in America, 1789-1860* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1940), chap. i and *passim*.

¹¹¹ New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1940.

¹¹² (Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute, 1927), chap. viii, "Libraries." For the sake of completeness one should also mention Ruth S. Granniss, "American Book Collecting and the Growth of Libraries," in Hellmut Lehmann-Haupt, Ruth S. Granniss, and Lawrence C. Wroth, *The Book in America* (New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1939), pp. 295-384; and Carl L. Cannon, *American Book Collectors and Col-*

lecting from Colonial Times to the Present (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1941). But both of these are essentially reversions to the earlier methods of writing library history.

¹¹³ *Library Quarterly*, XIII (1943), 227-31.

¹¹⁴ Not until almost the end of the article does he mention the all-important records and documents of the colleges themselves: "Finally, records and documents of individual colleges constitute a rich source. Minutes of the faculty library, where they are not confidential, may be used to great advantage" (*ibid.*, p. 229).

¹¹⁵ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935.

¹¹⁶ *The Chicago Public Library: Origins and Backgrounds* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943).

Perhaps more than any other function of local government, the free public library of today is intimately linked by tradition, by custom, and even by law, with its historic backgrounds. Without a preliminary view of the institutions which preceded it and out of which it developed by a slow evolutionary process, and without sympathetic appreciation of the stages through which it has progressed as a part of the governmental structure, it is difficult to understand clearly the forms library organization has assumed today.¹¹⁷

Obviously, Joeckel has segregated only certain threads from the complex fabric of library history, and he would be the first to deny that his is a comprehensive treatment. Nevertheless, the threads which he selected are of major importance in determining the pattern of library development, and his examination of the governmental warp and woof clarifies for the historian the intricacies of the entire design. Furthermore, this chapter unmistakably designates the path that the writing of library history must follow if it is to achieve its fullest significance.

The principles suggested by Joeckel have been given complete expression by Miss Spencer's study, which, despite its title, is really a history of library development in Illinois. Like Joeckel, under whose direction the study was in part prepared, she has emphasized the library's contingency upon trends in local government and public administration, but she has also considered other influences congenial to library establishment. In the pages of her work there appeared, for the first time, a balanced presentation of the many social forces that contributed to public library formation. Miss Spencer not only brought to light many facts which had hitherto been unknown but by her method demonstrated the value of relating library

progress to contemporary social phenomena.

X. CONCLUSION

Such were the major phases of library historiography since Quincy first wrote of the Athenaeum. The desirable direction for future investigation is not difficult to perceive. If one accepts the reality of the library as a social agency—and in the light of existing knowledge such acceptance is inevitable—then the obvious course for the historian is to examine minutely the social factors that brought the library into being as a free public institution and determined its development. Miss Spencer has done this for the Chicago area, but other regions remain wholly unexplored.

It is not the intention to belittle the importance of the older factual history, for the ascertainable historic fact *per se* must ever be the point of departure, and no interpretation can be trusted if the facts upon which it is based are found to be untrue. But no historian should rest content with historical writing that is a mere narration of events, any more than the architect considers the steel skeleton of a skyscraper a completed building. The relation between the library as the product of its culture and the social milieu in which it exists is polydimensional and reciprocal. It has no objective existence but reacts to and is reacted upon by its environment. Hence one must ever be careful to avoid the easy fallacies of oversimplification and one-sided causation. Doubtless the threads of causality that converge at any given time to create a specific social phenomenon stretch back through the historical continuum to primordial time, and any definite "origin" must always be relative to its antecedents. Therefore, to talk intelligibly

¹¹⁷ Joeckel, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

of the social origins of the library, one must ruthlessly slash the receding chain of ancillary causation and be content with, at best, a more or less generalized analysis of some segment of the time sequence.

This is not a confession of futility. The historian can, with considerable profit, learn much more of the origins of the library before he reaches the outposts of darkness beyond which no eye can see. Reconstruction of the history of librarianship, based on a sound knowledge of the methods and findings of accurate historical searching and illuminated by the ability to think one's self back into the actualities of the period, cannot be far distant. The manifest inadequacies of the earlier treatment are clear enough. It is no more difficult to apply the techniques of the historian to the problem of library origins than to inquire into the *raison d'être* of any other social phenomenon.

One must ask simply and directly: What were the influences that brought the library into being? How deeply was the library rooted in a conscious need? Did it result from the spontaneous enthusiasm of the populace, or did it come from the untiring efforts of a few? Who were the people who really promoted the demand for free library service, and what were their motives in so doing? To what extent did the idea of the public library become incorporated in the mores so that it grew to be a hallmark of municipal progress and civic distinction? What was the real part played by philanthropy? Was it the *deus ex machina* that

saved the library during its formative period, or was it no more than an ornamental superstructure imposed upon an institution the permanence of which was already assured? To what degree did the library signalize the spread of socialism in its assumption by the body politic of a function in the execution of which private enterprise had been largely a failure? Was the library a cause or an effect of social change? How was it related to the spread of popular education? Finally, of all the social and geographic phenomena by which the library was surrounded, which were related to it and which were not, and, of the former, what was the relative importance of each? In short, what were the motivating forces and what the contributory factors in library establishment, or, as Berr and Febvre would express it, how can one differentiate "contingency," "necessity," and "logic" in library causality? How, in the United States, did these several elements differ from region to region and century to century? Such questions should admit of reasonably accurate answer without excessive danger that the historian will find himself impaled upon the spearhead of his own intrepid imagination.

To be sure, there are limitations inherent in the historical method that no skill can overcome, but if the findings of this historical research can eventually be synthesized into an integrated pattern, at least some progress will be made toward a better understanding of the library in its true relation to the entirety of human life.

TOWARD A PHILOSOPHY OF LIBRARIANSHIP

MYRA KOLITSCH

TO FORMULATE the philosophy of any field of human knowledge and endeavor, one must do two things: (1) identify, analyze, and appraise the basic assumptions or foundations upon which practice within that field proceeds and (2) orient and relate these assumptions and that practice to all other aspects of life or to a larger whole. The following discussion is an attempt to do both of these things in the case of librarianship.

Librarianship is a social activity: it is primarily concerned with more than one individual and with the products of more than one individual's work. Librarianship encourages and establishes contacts between printed matter—or any other sources for conveying men's knowledge, ideas, and experiences without direct individual contact—and individual men. It is a bringing-together of men and their works. This, I realize, is a very broad definition of librarianship. Therefore, for the purposes of this paper, I shall confine the concept to more conventional limits and consider the library as the point of contact between men and those products of men's work that consist of printed or otherwise recorded verbal, mathematical, and musical symbols. And I shall consider librarianship as essentially the establishment and maintenance of that contact.

Since librarianship is but one activity amid many other social activities, it is inextricably connected with the social philosophies of the world in which it finds itself. The present world conflict indicates, among other things, that the

social philosophy and political structure of every nation or group of people is of vital importance to other nations and groups. Nations and individuals can no longer stand aside, tolerant but impervious to all good and all evil enacted by other men and groups of men, or even ignore what is inherent in the social philosophies of other nations and other groups.

A philosophy of librarianship must, therefore, be of such a character that it not only (1) is satisfactory to librarians but (2) will also be consistent with the social philosophy of the nation or group of people within which it is but one of many interests. Other necessary attributes of a democratic philosophy of librarianship are: (3) it must be able to exist and have its ends and ideals pursued in a world of many conflicting social philosophies, ends, and ideals; (4) it must promote rather than retard or obstruct the fullest development of the highest potentialities of the individual, society, and the library itself; (5) it must be forward-looking, and, as a corollary, it must continually submit to self-criticism, both in its theoretical formulations and in its practical applications; and, finally, (6) its ideals must be capable of progressive realization and application.

By saying that a philosophy of librarianship must be "satisfactory to librarians," I do not mean that its acceptability to librarians is a test of its validity. Social acceptability is not a criterion of truth or of relative truth, so that one should not and cannot say categorically whether any particular philosophy of

librarianship is true or not merely because it is or is not generally accepted. However, it can be assumed that a demonstration of its validity should predispose to its acceptance. In short, it is not necessarily true because it is acceptable, but it is more likely to be acceptable if it can be shown to be true. The most that can be done, therefore, in formulating a philosophy which will be satisfactory to librarians is to present the philosophy in as clear and logical a form as possible, always indicating the reasons for belief and justification and the general methods of proof.

The second prerequisite of a philosophy of librarianship is that it be consistent with the social philosophy of the group within which it is but one of many interests. Achieving such consistency is one of the major problems of every philosophy that involves consideration of many human activities and peoples. Indeed, this is one of the major problems of contemporary civilization—a social structure which finds it difficult to integrate, co-ordinate, and relate its many activities into a unified, coherent, consistent plan of life. The social philosophies of democracy, communism, and national socialism require quite different philosophies of librarianship in order that the library may exist and function in accord with the society of which it is a part.

The views as expressed in these three differing social philosophies in regard to man's capacity for making decisions and the way he makes them will illustrate how the basic social philosophy of a nation or group limits and necessitates a certain kind of philosophy of librarianship. According to communism, the activities and decisions of man and society are determined by the existing economic system. It assumes that man and society

are fundamentally economic and that all phases of individual and social life are subordinate to and causally determined by economic and material factors. A communistic philosophy of librarianship must therefore accept historical and dialectical materialism and view the library and librarianship as economically determined, subsidiary, and not decisive factors in human life and society, except in so far as they themselves are caused by and are a part of the ultimate determinants—economic forces. A communistic philosophy of librarianship would have as one of its objectives the forming and establishing in men of an awareness of the economic factors which determine the course of history and their lives and a knowledge of how these forces work and what specific results various and different economic factors will have under varying situations.¹

One of the basic tenets of national socialism is the belief that man is an emotional creature and makes all his decisions on the basis of emotional appeal. Man is primarily and basically irrational. This, of course, means that the ideals and ends of the state and individuals will be expounded and promoted by appealing to the emotional, not the rational, nature of man. Librarianship would be concerned with collecting and bringing to men's attention the material which tended to produce and promote the nationally correct and fruitful emotional reaction in the right individual, directed toward the right object, at the nationally suitable time.²

¹ A Paris library banned fairy tales because imaginative literature did not seem to be in accord with the materialistic and realistic objectives of communism ("Communist Library in Paris Puts Up Bars to Fairy Tales," *New York Times*, December 11, 1927, sec. 3, p. 1).

² The Nazi policy has ranged from the burning of so-called un-German books to the reclassification

Democracy no longer adheres to the eighteenth-century faith in pure reason but has taken a middle position, which seems to be psychologically, empirically, and introspectively defensible and verifiable. It maintains that man is both an emotional and a rational creature; man has the capacity but not an inherent compulsion for making rational judgments and forming rational conclusions. Therefore, it is the hope and belief of democracy that this rational capacity of man can be developed and encouraged so that men will participate intelligently in their own government. A democratic philosophy of librarianship must accordingly have faith in the rational capacity of man and must include among its objectives the stimulation and development of this capacity. Also, recognizing the fundamental emotional nature and tendencies of man, a democratic philosophy of librarianship will cautiously utilize, strengthen, and develop these tendencies and capacities so that they conform with, intensify, and supplement rational and empirical judgment.

There are at least three fundamental concepts upon which democratic society is based. These are: (1) the rational capacity of man; (2) an individualistic concept of society—the belief that society is composed wholly of individual men, that is, is not an entity in itself and does not have goals separate and different from the goals of its individual members; and (3) the belief, not in the biological equality of all men, but in the equal right and duty of all men to develop their highest potentialities in so far as that

development is commensurate with a like self-realization of other members of society.

It is extremely difficult, if not almost impossible, to create a machinery of government that will utilize and realize these basic concepts, beliefs, and objectives. We can, for example, force everybody to vote; but we cannot insure that they vote intelligently. An all too simple way of evading and not solving the problem would be to limit suffrage to the intelligent voters by law. But this is impossible; as soon as we had so limited the ballot, it would indeed become difficult to correlate and integrate the various purposes, ends, and ideals of society into a functioning, meaningful whole.

Democracy must depend upon agencies other than governmental, unless governmental agencies cover all activities of life, to help it achieve the goals of government itself—indeed, to make these goals at all possible of attainment. Librarianship, since it is primarily a social activity, concerned with promoting and establishing contact between men and the products of men's work, is well suited to clarify democratic goals and ideals and to promote their attainment.

Librarianship, by the manner in which men and ideas are brought together, can, for example, do much to insure that men will vote intelligently. The library need not and should not be the depository for all ideas no matter how poorly and how emotionally defended. The library should contain only those materials which will be of positive use and value in promoting the ends and ideals of society and in contributing toward a solution of the problems which face individuals, society, and civilization. Librarianship can help to make democracy function by translating a theoretical rationalism into favorable opportunities,

of books according to Nazi racial principles ("Nazis Pile Books for Bonfire Today," *New York Times*, May 10, 1933, p. 1; "Vermischte Nachrichten; die Neuordnung der philosophischen Bibliotheken; Austeilung nach einem artgemässen Wissenschaftsbegriff gefordert," *Frankfurter Zeitung*, February 6, 1938).

situations, and problems upon which the rational capacity of man can develop and become a positive social factor.

The alternative to an individualistic view of society is the hypothesis that society has a soul or spirit and is something more than the sum total or a portion of its aggregate. According to this view of society, social aims are something more than the aims of any or all of its members; individuals cannot realize themselves except through society and in so far as they contribute toward the development and self-realization of the soul or spirit of the society within which they live. Democracy does not deny that men must realize themselves in and through society; it merely denies that society is something mysterious and spiritual and that the self-realization of the individuals who compose society is any different from the self-realization of society itself.³

One of the functions and purposes of librarianship is to clarify in men's minds their own and other people's purposes and ideals. The objectives of particular groups and particular individuals can be clarified and gain greater significance if they touch and understand the aims and ideals of others, which are at once both similar and dissimilar to their own, especially if this contact and clarification show the basic assumptions, logical im-

plications, and practical results of the various objectives.

Closely connected with this faith in the rational capacity of man and the individualistic view of society are democracy's faith in the ability of men to reach comparatively valid and objective decisions by discussion and the belief that government by consent is more desirable than government by constraint. Men can come to a common empirical agreement on any problem that faces them only if they can utilize their reason for considering the meaning and consequences of their experiences. The great good fortune of man has been that he has developed language and other more or less permanent means of communication. This has meant that not only contemporary men but also men of the remote past have been able to convey experiences, emotions, and ideas to men across the centuries. Societies of men, unlike insect societies, have not had to rely on instinct or biological necessity in order to preserve their society. Our ability to incorporate the experiences of other individuals and other groups within our own experience has greatly extended our horizons.

Democracy places its faith in the hope and probability that men will integrate this vast heritage of human experience with their own in a rational search for the most valid solutions of the problems which face their society. It is the part of librarianship to facilitate this interchange of experience and to attempt to bring to the attention of living individuals those experiences of their contemporaries and progenitors which have a direct or, at least, a possible significant relationship and application to current problems. One of the aims of librarianship will be to insure that no individual is limited to his own narrow experience

³ The arguments in favor of the individualistic view of society are empirical and logical. Nothing beyond experience is needed to support the democratic, individualistic theory. Moreover, the spiritual view violates the principle of parsimony by failing to economize in its assumptions. The individualistic explanation of society is also a scientifically more fruitful hypothesis; if the goals of society are different from those of its members, how can any one member or, for that matter, society as a whole know what its own goals are? Unless one is willing to grant *ab intra* causality, society cannot possibly function in accord with spiritual aims that are different from and something more than the aims of some composite of the individuals comprising it.

in his attempt to solve the problems which face him, as an individual and as a member of society.

Government can be by consent only when the ideals of society are and include the ideals of individuals. Individuals can have government by consent only when they are able to come to some common agreement on the type and programs of the government. Every human government must have some elements of constraint in it, because opinion can never be completely uniform. Librarianship seeks to establish more consent and more agreement, not by censoring any particular ideas, experiences, or beliefs, but by facilitating an interchange of ideas and experiences and by promoting and encouraging a rational analysis and synthesis of these ideas and experiences.

Totalitarian apologists have severely criticized the democratic belief in the equality of all men, pointing out their obvious physical, intellectual, and moral inequality and difference. But democracy does not maintain that all men are factually equal to one another but only that all men have the equal right and duty to develop their highest potentialities in so far as that development is commensurate with the like self-development and self-realization of other members of society. This is not the *laissez faire* concept of democracy in which individuals are pitted against individuals, all working for their own selfish interest, while society looks on, vainly hoping that the end product will be the betterment of man and society. In a true democracy each man attains his highest potentialities—those which, in the long run, will enable him to make the greatest contribution to society and civilization. He is not encouraged to develop purely selfish capacities which will have

a detrimental effect on society or on the self-development of other individuals.

Each individual in a democratic society will have different things to offer. Some may be able to perform only the simplest mechanical tasks. Others may be equipped to make more original and unusual contributions. It is the task of society to create a favorable environment in which every person is impelled and enabled to develop his highest potentialities and thereby lives a life that is at once personally satisfying and socially useful. Librarianship must have as one of its objectives the creation of this favorable environment by offering encouragement, stimulation, and motivation to each individual, citizen and noncitizen alike, for this individual and social self-realization, by inspiring him with the faith that his maximum contribution is a significant and necessary part of the social order.

After thus defining the philosophy of librarianship in terms of a philosophy of democracy, we must next inquire whether these philosophies of librarianship and democracy can exist and be actively pursued in a world of many conflicting social philosophies. Can democracy exist amid totalitarian neighbors? Democracy, obviously, cannot exist in apathetic peace and harmony among neighbors who pursue positively goals which are contrary to democratic goals. Democracy must become positive and dynamic in its search for self-realization. We must not say "freedom from want," but "freedom to use and develop our potentialities, capacities, and abilities so that we can satisfy our wants." Freedom from want can be attained by the simple expediency of the dole; but the positive freedom and compulsion to satisfy our wants through our own activity and the united activity and co-operation

of society can never be accomplished by such means.

If the survival value of democracy is enhanced by the pursuit of positive goals, and if democracy is based upon the assumption that society is individualistic and can only pursue the objectives of its individual members or their aggregate, then it is necessary for individuals and groups to pursue goals and values which are in accord with the social and individual objectives of democratic society. Librarianship, as a special activity within the social system, will seek to make men aware of positive personal and social values and ideals by establishing contact between men and ideas and men and goals, thereby helping to clarify in each man's mind the goals that he and other individuals and groups are pursuing and also, through this clarification, helping to integrate the goals and ends of society into a meaningful whole.

Democracy will be better able to exist and function in a hostile world if the individuals who make up democratic society understand the beliefs and goals of its antagonistic neighbors and their accepted means of attaining those goals. Librarianship must, therefore, not indoctrinate and inculcate democratic ideals and beliefs but must work toward establishing in individuals and in the social order an awareness and an understanding of the various forces at work in the world. This contact with the ideas, experiences, and works of other societies must be centered around an evaluation and knowledge of their significance to us as individuals and to our society and must continually work toward the elimination of forces detrimental to our society and our welfare; or it must enable us better to adjust ourselves to non-antagonistic but diverse forces. Likewise, this contact with the ideas, experiences,

and works of other societies must be aimed at a recognition of the forces which are in harmony with our own aims and thus enable us to co-operate with them.

Although the traditional slowness of democracies to act is not an unmitigated evil, it becomes a conspicuous and sometimes a very definite handicap in a totalitarian world. Intelligent and more rapid action can best be promoted by increasing the availability of knowledge and information about the problems which face society and civilization. By having information available on as many of the issues as it is humanly possible to foresee and predict, by perfecting its machinery for bringing men into contact with these problems and this information, and by making⁴ men decide the issues as intelligently and as rapidly as possible, librarianship will be promoting the survival of democracy.

A philosophy of librarianship must be forward-looking. By "forward-looking" I mean that it must recognize the values, opportunities, and problems of the present and be alert and ready to adjust to the values, opportunities, and problems of the future.

The world at large is bewildered by the speed at which things are changing. Many nations also have backward-looking tendencies in their social philosophies and attitudes: Italy to the Roman Empire and Germany to the ancient Germans and Prussian militarism. The United States, too, finds it difficult to recognize that it is no longer a country of relatively unlimited opportunities and so is inclined to defend a laissez faire economy.

⁴ By "making" I mean, not physical compulsion, but mental compulsion because of a recognition of the problem.

The philosophy of librarianship must never become so stagnant that it looks to the past rather than to the present and the future. Librarianship must prevent itself and society from becoming backward-looking; it can do this by making available and bringing to men's attention the knowledge, experiences, and ideas of the past that will enrich and clarify the present and indicate what we might work for in the future. Librarianship must always bring men into contact with the significant forward-looking elements of the past and the immediate present. Librarianship must also discard those parts of its system that prevent development, progress, change, and the realization of its ideals. We must become something more than an institution which promotes all programs and all ideas whether or not they are consistent with or contradictory to our own professional and social philosophy.

The final attribute of our philosophy of librarianship, as of any social philosophy, is that its ideals be such as can be progressively realized. The purposes and ideals of librarianship which have here

been outlined are of such a nature; they can be and should be realized in any democratic society. Yet they are not permanent and final; as the present becomes the past, the new present and future will offer new challenges, obligations, and possibilities. Our realization of these ideals will become more vivid and more practicable as our knowledge of human nature and of the world increases and as we learn better how to utilize our knowledge.

According to this view of librarianship and social democracy, librarianship is a method of promoting social democracy. The philosophy of librarianship is to be arrived at by analyzing the philosophy of democracy and discovering how librarianship can aid in the realization of democratic ideals. The democratic way of life cannot be achieved except in so far as individuals and groups within society achieve and help others to achieve its individual and social ideals. Librarianship is but one of the social forces which can and must find its own justification, aims, and ideals in an understanding and practice of true democracy.

THE LIBRARY SCHOOL OF THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF PERU

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THE National Library of Peru, whose fine collection of books and manuscripts had been built up largely by the distinguished Peruvian writer, Ricardo Palma, was almost completely destroyed by fire on May 10, 1943. Over a hundred thousand bound volumes were lost, together with most of the large collection of manuscripts and many maps and geographical works belonging to the Lima Geographical Society. This disaster not only erased Peru's largest library but also caused an irreparable loss in the cultural resources of the American continent.

The then secretary of state, Mr. Cordell Hull, as an expression of sympathy on the part of the people of the United States, appointed a "Committee To Aid the National Library of Peru and the Geographical Society of Lima." Mr. Sumner Welles was elected chairman of the committee, and Dr. Lewis Hanke, director of the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress, served as secretary. Mr. Archibald MacLeish was made vice-chairman and served as active head of the group. The committee included such distinguished scholars and specialists as Dr. Herbert E. Bolton, Mr. Donald Coney, Mr. Archer M. Huntington, Dr. Waldo G. Leland, Mr. Philip Ainsworth Means, Mr. Keyes D. Metcalf, Mr. Harry M. Lydenberg, Mr. R. Henry Norweb, Mr. John K. Wright, Mr. Lawrence Wroth, Mr. Wallace K. Harrison, Mr. Charles A. Thomson, and Mr. W. W. Norton.

The committee felt that it could best aid the National Library by finding out

what Dr. Jorge Basadre, the new librarian, really needed and could use. It was therefore decided to send to Lima three emissaries, one of whom should be the secretary of the committee, one a competent consultant on library matters generally, and one a scholar with a particular interest in libraries. Dr. Lewis Hanke, Mr. Keyes D. Metcalf, and Mr. Wilmarth S. Lewis were chosen and instructed to obtain information concerning the training of library personnel, the library building, and the collections of books to be given to the library.

The Peruvians were genuinely pleased by the serious interest shown by the United States in sending special representatives to obtain firsthand information. Dr. Jorge Basadre, one of the most eminent scholars of Peru, particularly noted for his historical researches on the Republican period, had stipulated, when taking his post as librarian, that a library school be established to train the personnel of the new library. This was a project in which the assistance of the committee seemed logical, and it was agreed that we would help to set up and conduct a temporary school for the specific purpose of training a single class for service in the library. An understanding was reached that a maximum of six persons would be sent by the committee, three of whom would be considered as principal instructors to give courses in library administration, cataloging, and children's libraries, with two or three assistants to aid in the teaching. The Peruvian government offered to pay a liberal salary to the faculty of the

school. The committee also undertook to aid the library school with whatever would be required in the way of books on library science and other bibliographical material. Extensive gifts in the fields of American literature, United States government documents, standard reference works, and especially microfilm and photostats of Peruviana in United States collections were also planned at this time.

After the return of the emissaries, the committee appointed myself and, as my assistant, Miss Elizabeth Sherier of the Library of Congress, as its representatives to proceed at once to Lima to organize the library school and to aid Dr. Basadre in matters pertaining to the National Library. My own trip was made possible through funds provided by the Committee for Inter-American Artistic and Intellectual Relations, headed by Dr. Henry Allen Moe of the Guggenheim Foundation, while Miss Sherier was sent on funds provided through the Library of Congress. Dr. Lewis Hanke was asked to serve as director of all activities in connection with the library school and counselor extraordinary. Over and over again Dr. Hanke's assistance was sought for needs of the school, and his swift and vigorous response was always tremendously encouraging to those in Lima. Dr. Hanke was, most definitely, the tutelary genius of the library school throughout all its existence.

The two representatives of the committee arrived in Lima on October 8, 1943. Conferences with Dr. Basadre were begun almost immediately in order to sketch out the organization of the school. There were several important questions to settle, such as the duration, the qualifications for admission, the number of students, and the selection of texts. It did not take long to reach a de-

cision on these points, but all concerned realized that in this particular situation the decisions might be only tentative.¹

The approximate duration of the school had already been discussed by the emissaries. A period of six months, from January to July, 1944, was finally designated, this period to include all final examinations. The term thus overlapped somewhat unconventionally the traditional summer vacation and the winter session. Except for a week's holiday at Easter and a few national and sacred holidays scattered throughout the term, the school was in session continuously.

Since the specific purpose of the school was the training of a professional staff for the National Library, it was essential that the number of students be restricted as far as possible in order to provide a maximum of individualized instruction. Again, the number of positions in the National Library to be made available at the end of the term was necessarily limited. The teaching staff was small, classroom space was uncertain, the texts had to be imported, with consequent limitations in quantity, and typewriters for the use of the students were almost impossible to obtain. All these elements made it imperative to limit the size of the school severely.

As a result, the number of students who were to be candidates for posts in the National Library was set at twenty-five. Not more than eight or ten posts would be available, and such a number could be selected quite easily on the

¹ It should be noted that this was not the first library school to be held in Peru. Classes in library administration and bibliography had been offered in 1931 to a small group of voluntary students in the library of the University of San Marcos, then under the direction of Dr. Basadre. A series of courses covering a wider range, including a course in cataloging and classification, had been planned for 1940, but circumstances prevented the carrying-out of this project.

basis of accomplishment in the school. At the same time it was decided to admit to the school ten practicing librarians, who would not be candidates for positions in the National Library but who would have a chance to profit from the instruction. It was recognized that the number of librarians admitted was pitifully small, but the admission of even this number overtaxed available facilities. After all, the aim of the school was to train personnel for service in the National Library, not to provide instruction for the numerous librarians in Lima and other Peruvian cities.

It was in this regard, perhaps, that the Lima school differed markedly from other library schools established through similar co-operation in various Latin-American countries. Most of them have been established to provide additional training for persons who already hold positions as librarians. The Lima school, on the other hand, was established to create new librarians from a group of people who need not have had any previous library experience.

It is perfectly natural that most of the other library schools should attempt to train librarians, but there are certain disadvantages in such a practice. The primary difficulty is that students in such schools are usually selected according to the importance of the library in which they serve rather than by a strict evaluation of their ability and background. Such a method of selection may introduce into the school persons who are not in sympathy with the ideals of modern librarianship, who dread any change in their routines, and who, in some cases, are terrified lest they lose their positions. While the great majority are undoubtedly glad to obtain training in modern library practices, the wide variety in backgrounds and in powers of

absorption tends to result in a disorganized student body. This lack of unity seriously weakens the value of the training, especially if the school is one of the intensive variety with a term of six weeks to two months.

The Lima school was, therefore, most fortunate in being able to select its student body primarily on the basis of ability. When the prestige of a school depends so much upon the first trial, it is vital to have good students. It is obvious that with ill-trained and halfhearted students a new school in a relatively unknown subject would have to struggle against almost insuperable difficulties and the failure of such a project could delay library growth for years. On the other hand, the success of a new school could provide the necessary catalyst for a complete change in library practices.

After a general plan of organization was agreed upon, advertisements of the school were inserted in Peruvian newspapers, especially those of Lima, announcing a period of application for admission. The advertisements were clear in stating that only a few posts would be available at the end of the school term, but the applicants were in no wise discouraged.

Application blanks were prepared which called for much the same sort of information as that requested by North American library schools. The candidates were asked to submit an official transcription of their school records and to answer questions about their professional or business experience, possible library experience, their skill in typewriting, their language skills, health, travels, and, especially, their reasons for wishing to enter the library profession. The newspaper advertisements announced that candidates between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five would be considered. If an

unusual candidate over the age of thirty-five had appeared, we would undoubtedly have made an exception, but it was not necessary to do so.

The first step after the receipt of the applications was a minute examination of the accompanying school records. This was not easy for Miss Sherier and myself, since we had no knowledge of the reputation of the many secondary schools of Lima and other Peruvian cities. Dr. Basadre was of great assistance in providing an evaluation of the schools and of the system of grading employed. Many records were obviously poor and could be rejected forthwith; quite a few applicants neglected to include the official transcripts, and most of these were automatically rejected. Some of the records were of foreign schools, either European or Latin American. Although a majority of the records submitted were from secondary schools, a fairly large number indicated university training; several applicants were already engaged in professional work such as law or teaching.

The application forms were next studied, with especial attention to the foreign languages presented by the candidates. A requisite for admission to the school was a good reading knowledge of one of the major European languages; it was hoped that the candidates would have some knowledge of English even though they presented another language as their specialty. Several of the candidates obviously had unusual language equipment; frequently their parents were of foreign birth or they had gone to school abroad. Unfortunately, some of those with the most languages were not suited, in other respects, for the library profession. If the applicant's record indicated nothing more than a very elementary knowledge of foreign languages,

the application was rejected. A sound language equipment was deemed essential for work in the National Library, which plans to build up a fine international collection.

The cultural background, as seen through the occupations of the parents and of the candidates themselves, was a factor of importance, especially in a country where educational advantages are somewhat meager. As might be expected, the applicants ranged from the children of poor families of Indian descent to those of some of the wealthy families of Lima. It was encouraging to find that the daughters of certain old families were eager to enter the library profession; some of those who were chosen were among the best students in the school. Another point carefully noted was any commercial experience which would suggest ability in steady work and a sense of orderliness and precision. There proved to be marked correlation between this ability and success in the school, although it should also be noted that some of the best students had had no such experience.

It was decided to grant an interview to all those applicants whose papers suggested promise or whose papers, although imperfect in some respect, indicated more than average talent. In some cases in which the educational backgrounds had been decidedly unconventional, the candidates appeared worthy of consideration because of positions they had held or works they had written. There were more than three hundred applicants for the school, and about sixty of these were interviewed by the examining board, composed of Dr. Basadre, Miss Sherier, and myself.

The interviews lasted from fifteen to twenty minutes, on the average. The interview ordinarily began with a brief

reading test in the foreign language or languages presented. The candidate was asked to translate at sight short passages from books or periodicals. If the candidate claimed a speaking knowledge of English, French, or German, the examiners tested this by short conversations. Many candidates had greatly overestimated their language skills. These language tests were admittedly stiff, but they were instrumental in selecting people whose knowledge of languages was certain as well as advanced. Of course, some of those who had studied abroad turned in splendid performances, especially in command of the spoken language; a few had an excellent knowledge of English, more had a perfect command of French, a few of Italian, and two of German. Several of Indian ancestry spoke Quechua.

The language test was followed by the interview proper. The candidate was questioned regarding the nature of his occupation, the extent of his educational background and achievements, and especially about his tastes in reading. The interviews were frequently entertaining and invariably revealing. The examiners asked many specific questions about certain authors and certain books, frequently asking the candidate to give a rapid summary of the contents of a book mentioned. An attempt was made to discover how wide the candidate's reading had been in foreign literatures, usually in translation, especially in the French, English, North American, Italian, Russian, and German literatures. It was surprising to learn that many candidates were really better read in other literatures than in the Spanish and Spanish-American. Most of the better candidates had read many of the standard modern works of international fame, particularly popular biographies and novels. Ques-

tions were asked regarding the candidate's knowledge of Peruvian literature; few knew many works other than the masterpiece of Ricardo Palma.

The examiners constantly strove to discover why the candidates wished to enter the library profession. No one knew much about it, naturally enough, for there were scarcely any examples available. Almost all stressed a vague "cultural value" to be derived, presumably by absorption, from working in a library; quite a few were disconcerted to learn that working in a library was not equivalent to sitting down and reading books whenever the spirit moved. Some, however, had very clearly in mind the educational function of the modern library. Many of the candidates were asked what type of library work they would prefer, such as cataloging, reference, or circulation work, and most of them chose reference from the description. Those who worked in offices were saddened to learn that library salaries were so low but felt certain that library work would be far superior to office routines.

From these interviews, in conjunction with the applications and scholastic records, it was possible to gain a fairly good notion of the candidates' minds and personalities. Preference was naturally given to those with broad interests in reading, fine language equipment, and satisfactory personalities. A definite attempt was made to eliminate the dilettante type—an effort that proved successful. Despite the apparent gentleness of the examiners, who could hardly be described as forbidding, some candidates envisaged the interviews as grim and terrifying ordeals and were too nervous to show up well, but most of them responded splendidly. Although these interviews took a great deal of

time, they were well worth the trouble. The group of students finally chosen, after careful discussion by the examining board, had an unusually high level of intelligence and personality. Even more gratifying was the enthusiasm that pervaded the whole group; they appeared deeply impressed by the honor of being chosen from such a large number of applicants and were determined to do their utmost to justify their selection. Whatever success the school had can be attributed in large measure to this careful work of selection.

One point that was long debated was the desirability of requiring a sound reading knowledge of English for admission to the school. The decision not to require it was motivated by what might be called political considerations; the requirement of English for admission might appear excessive in a project that was already overwhelmingly North American in tone. Since it was deemed important to disarm any hostility in advance, a reading knowledge of French, German, or Italian, with a minimum of English, was considered acceptable for entrance. There seems little doubt now that this policy was a mistake. The success of the school in its aim of imparting a sound knowledge of library science should have weighed more heavily than the possibility of criticism. By enforcing this requisite, the school might have lost some good students; but the best students in this particular school were also able to read English. After all, the great bulk of library-science literature is in English. It is doubtful if Latin Americans have much familiarity with German except in scientific fields; it is rarely part of the language equipment of the Latin American with ordinary schooling. While, on the other hand, many read French easily, there is very little library-science

material in French. To keep abreast of modern library science, a knowledge of English is indispensable, and there can be no compromising with that fact.

The lack of a thorough knowledge of English on the part of many students in the school meant that very little reading in English could be assigned. Since the amount of material now available in Spanish is pitifully small, the lectures had to incorporate as much as possible of basic library science—a rather difficult feat of compression. As a result, all the wealth of material in English in the relatively small library sent for the use of the school was of no help to many students, and their work was correspondingly handicapped.

It is to be hoped that future schools will see their way clear to making English a requisite for admission. This should continue even after the time when there is sufficient material in Spanish, since there is every likelihood that many of the new developments will appear in books and journals in English for long years in the future. In the same way that we have been wont to require a knowledge of French and German in our library schools in the United States, Latin-American schools might well have a requirement of English.

The interviews were held from the end of October until the middle of December, after which the final selection of students for the school was made by the examining board. Twenty-five students were chosen to become candidates for the posts in the National Library. Eleven others, including three employees of the Ministry of Education and eight librarians from Lima, were selected by Dr. Basadre and the minister of education, Señor Laroza, to participate in the work of the school but were not candidates for positions. Another student was pro-

posed by Señor Laroza, so that the total number came to thirty-seven. (Soon after the beginning of the term four students dropped out, leaving thirty-three on the permanent roster.) A nominal fee of twenty-five soles (ten dollars) was required for matriculation. Most of the students came from Lima, but one was from Arequipa and two were from Cuzco.

More than half of the students either had received university degrees or had attended a year or more of classes in the various Peruvian schools, notably the University of San Marcos and the Catholic University in Lima and the universities of Arequipa and Cuzco. Most of the others had completed their secondary education either in Peru or in Europe; a few had studied with private tutors. It was found that the age distribution fell almost entirely between twenty and forty. Only one person was over forty, seventeen were between thirty and forty, and fifteen were between twenty and thirty. The students who were candidates for the National Library were predominantly youthful, and most of the best students were in the twenties. The librarians who participated were youthful in spirit, so that the whole tone of the school was alert and vigorous.

During the period of interviews and selection of students the planning of the school's organization went steadily forward. The first element, of course, had been the selection of the faculty. Dr. Basadre had asked for three principal teachers from the United States to teach courses in cataloging, library administration, and children's libraries. By October three people were tentatively chosen, but only two of them were able to go to Lima—Miss Margaret Bates of the Library of Congress, who taught the course on children's libraries, and I. Miss Bates, who had long been a special-

ist in Spanish, had had experience in the New York Public Library, in the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress, and as a teacher of library science in Brazil in the service of the Brazilian government. My own experience had been chiefly as a teacher of romance languages at Harvard and as assistant librarian at Carleton College.

When it was learned in December that the person who had been slated to teach cataloging could not go, Dr. Jorge Aguayo, subdirector of the University of Havana Library, was invited to teach and was fortunately able to accept. Dr. Aguayo was sent by the American Library Association with funds provided by the Rockefeller Foundation. Much of the success of the school came through the informal but effective co-operation of such institutions with the committee. For a while it was considered doubtful if Dr. Aguayo, on such short notice, could arrive in time for the opening of the school, but he appeared about four days in advance, to the relief of all. The addition of this distinguished librarian, the author of several works on library science, was of immense value to the school, especially in the teaching of such a vital subject. Dr. Aguayo had previously received a scholarship to study library science in the United States and had taken courses at Columbia.

Dr. Basadre, who himself gave portions of the course in reference, invited Dr. Alberto Pincherle, formerly professor in the University of Rome and now professor of the history of civilization in the Catholic University of Lima, to give the course in the history of the book. Dr. Pincherle was aided by Dr. Alberto Tauro, head of the acquisitions department of the National Library. Father Victor Barriga of the University of St. Augustine of Arequipa gave the course

on paleography, and Dr. Luis F. Xammar, the general secretary of the National Library, gave a course of lectures on the cultural evolution of Peru.

Miss Elizabeth Sherier of the Library of Congress, who had had varied experience in special libraries connected with federal bureaus in Washington and Philadelphia, gave some of the lectures in the course in reference. Miss Josephine Fabilli of the Library of Congress and Señorita Carmen Rosa Andraca, librarian of the National Engineering School of Peru, aided Dr. Aguayo in the course in cataloging. Miss Fabilli had worked in the libraries of the University of California and Stanford University as well as in the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress, specializing in library materials in the romance language field. Señorita Andraca had received her library training at the library school of the University of Michigan.

Señorita Carmen Ortiz de Zevallos, who had studied library science in Madrid, acted as secretary of the school, aiding students and faculty alike.

The curriculum itself had been sketched out early in October. Dr. Basadre had definite ideas about the courses needed for the instruction of the library staff. The courses he had in mind followed the basic courses in the curriculum of almost every North American library school. The introduction of paleography was to fill a need specifically felt in Peru. Dr. Basadre was especially eager to have a course on children's libraries, a subject never taught before in Peru, through which he hoped a great stimulus might be given to the establishment of such libraries throughout the country.

It was recognized that the courses would have to be practical, with great emphasis on the mechanical routines

and practices so unfamiliar to Latin-American librarians. It was also understood that a great deal of individual attention would have to be given to each student, since none of them could be expected to possess the knowledge that the average high-school student acquires here—that is, familiarity with card catalogs, periodical indexes, and other simple reference tools.

Apparently the greatest need of Latin-American libraries, and especially of the National Library, under the circumstances, was to train competent technicians to attack the work of cataloging and classification. This study, combined with a sound training in reference and bibliography, would be vital in providing effective service for the general public and scholars alike.

Despite all the care taken in planning the curriculum, there were certain obstacles that rendered difficult the carrying-out of such plans. The greatest of all the obstacles was the extreme slowness of transportation during wartime from the United States to Peru. Another obstacle was the lack of sufficient time in advance to work out the courses, with a good library at hand for consultation.

There was undoubtedly sufficient time during October, November, and December to prepare the courses to be given in the school beginning in January, yet most of this period was useless because there were no books on library science to use for study and consultation. When I left the United States, only two weeks elapsed between the final notification that I was to go and my departure from Miami. It was believed important that some representatives of the committee should be in Peru as soon as possible in order to advise in all matters concerning the school and the reorganization of the library. Thus there was no time to draw

up detailed plans of the courses I expected to give; the greater part of the two weeks had to be spent in preparations for departure. There is no doubt, however, that one month of work in a large library would have been infinitely more fruitful than three months in Lima practically without books. It had been hoped that there would be books on library science available in Lima, but the number actually found was far from enough to provide a basic library.

There was nothing to do but to await anxiously the arrival of books from the United States. I had been able to select a few books before leaving, fortunately, and expected these to arrive first. Yet these books did not appear until practically the first of December, though started from the United States in the early part of October. And, by luck, most of the books on cataloging, the course which I was *not* preparing, came first, and I had to wait for another two weeks before most of the fundamental tools arrived.

The vagaries of air and boat transportation, to say nothing of censorship, are hardly worth recording here, but they proved a constant worry to the faculty of the school. All sorts of unexplainable delays occurred. Books ordered in November did not arrive until March, in one instance, while others sped through in record time. Air-mail communication was slow, sometimes taking twelve or fourteen days for an ordinary letter; hence requests for books could not be met promptly. Dr. Hanke did everything to hurry the dispatch of books once the request was received, but no one could be sure when they would arrive.

As soon as the size of the school was established, orders were sent for texts, such as Aguayo's book on cataloging,

Mrs. Carnovsky's book on library practices in the United States, classification schedules, etc. All these had been sent by the latter part of October. Months passed, the books did not arrive, and finally the opening date was about a week away. Then, in the nick of time, Aguayo's book arrived, but none of the others. The school began under some anxiety, for it was hard to say whether the other texts would ever appear, in view of the submarine activity in the Caribbean. At last, about two weeks after the opening, all the needed texts arrived.² They included the following:

AGUAYO, JORGE. *Manual práctico de clasificación y catalogación de bibliotecas*. Habana: Jesús Montero, 1943.

———. "Modelas de fichas." (Mimeographed.)

———. "Reglas de catalogación: 183 reglas de la A.L.A. catalog rules." (Mimeographed.)

BOSTWICK, ARTHUR E. *La Biblioteca pública en los Estados Unidos*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941.

CARNEGIE LIBRARY OF PITTSBURGH. *Rules for Filing Cards in the Dictionary Catalogues of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh*. 5th ed. Pittsburgh, 1932.

CARNOVSKY, MARIAN S. *Introducción a la práctica bibliotecaria en los Estados Unidos*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1941.

CHILDS, JAMES B. *El Encabezamiento de autor para las publicaciones oficiales*, trad. del inglés por MARIAN FORERO NOUGUÉS. Washington: Unión Panamericana, Biblioteca Colón, 1944.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. SCHOOL OF LIBRARY SERVICE. *Sample Catalog Cards*. New York: Columbia University, [1937].

MILLER, ZANA K. *How To Organize a Library*. 10th ed., rev. Buffalo: Remington Rand, Inc., 1941.

² All the textbooks were supplied free of charge to the students. Incomes and salaries are low in Peru, and it was considered best to lend the students the books, which were returned to the school at the end of the term to be held in reserve for future classes. Other standard works, such as *Mudge's Guide to Reference Books* and *Dewey's Decimal Classification*, were available in small numbers for consultation.

PAN AMERICAN UNION. *Reglas para uniformar la práctica en la catalogación*. . . . Washington, 1936.

SEARS, MINNIE E. "Sugestiones prácticas para el principiante en el trabajo de encabezamientos por materias . . .," trad. por CARMEN ROSA ANDRACA. (Mimeographed.)

U.S. LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. *Characteristics of L.C. Cards*.

———. *Handbook of Card Distribution*.

———. *Outline of L.C. Classification*. Rev. and enl. Washington, 1942.

VICÉNS, JUAN. *Como se organiza una biblioteca*. México: Editorial Atlante, 1941.

Delay in receiving the needed books and other materials put a tremendous strain upon the faculty, who, in many instances, had to carry on their work without the proper tools. This was especially true in cataloging, since it was impossible to obtain enough classification schedules to fill the needs of the class. Many expedients had to be devised to compensate for such lacks.

The formal opening of the school took place on January 15, 1944. Dr. Basadre gave a short talk on the aims of the modern library, especially in relation to the needs of Peru, and on the purpose of the library school. An official interest was shown in the school by Dr. Manuel Prado, the president of Peru, who aided in designating its first quarters in the splendid colonial building of the School of Fine Arts, and who mentioned with appreciation the projected work of the school in his speech in connection with the laying of the cornerstone of the new National Library on January 18.

The range of hours available for classes was extremely limited because most of the students worked during the day either in libraries or in business houses. Thus the only morning period available for the whole student body was from eight to nine, since transportation difficulties made an earlier hour impossible for most students. In the eve-

ning two hours were available, from six-thirty to eight-thirty, on every day except Saturday. Although some of the students who worked were free at certain hours during the morning or afternoon, there was no one period during the day when all were free. The classes, therefore, had to be fitted within this procrustean framework.

One of the most difficult problems the school had to face during the entire period was the finding of adequate quarters. Since there was no space available in the remains of the National Library, various buildings were examined, but none appeared entirely satisfactory because of limited space or a limited period of availability. President Prado finally selected the School of Fine Arts as the home of the school, and several rooms were fitted over to suit our needs for a large classroom, with provision for the showing of lantern slides, as well as for a study room and library and offices for the faculty. The quarters were most attractive, in a fine old building with three beautiful patios enlivened with a profusion of flowers; the rooms were reasonably well lighted, and there was ample space for study. The only disadvantage of this locale was its position in a section of Lima remote from the business center and difficult of access by ordinary means of transportation. Because bus and streetcar transportation was crowded and slow just before eight o'clock in the morning, the school obtained the loan of a bus from the Colegio de San Andrés to pick up most of the students at three central points in Lima, carry them to the school, and then return them to the center of Lima after the morning class in time for their hours of work in business firms, government offices, or libraries.

By the first week in April, we were obliged to move to another building,

that of the School of Social Service, because the books of the National Library and its offices were being removed to the School of Fine Arts, and there would have been no room left for the regular activities of that institution with so much space taken up by the library school. The quarters in the new building did not begin to offer the same amount of space or lighting as those in the former building, but the location was much more central and the transportation facilities were excellent, so that the use of the special school bus was no longer necessary.

It was a distinct disadvantage to the library school that it did not possess quarters which it could call its own, even for a short time. Nothing could be fixed permanently for the benefit of the school, and almost everything had an improvised appearance that was rather unfortunate. However, such a state of affairs was inevitable under the circumstances, and, despite the difficulties of such an arrangement, both students and teaching staff set out to make the best of the situation.

The curriculum of the school included the following courses:

I. CATALOGING AND CLASSIFICATION.—Six hours a week; Dr. Aguayo, Miss Fabilli, Señora Andraca.

II. REFERENCE AND BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Three hours a week (January to May); Dr. Kilgour, Miss Sherier.

SPANISH AND SPANISH-AMERICAN BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Three hours a week (May to July); Dr. Basadre.

III. LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION.—Three hours a week (January to April); Dr. Kilgour.

IV. CHILDREN'S LIBRARIES.—Three hours a week (April to July); Miss Bates.

V. HISTORY OF THE BOOK.—One hour a week; Dr. Pincherle.

VI. PALEOGRAPHY.—One hour a week; Father Barriga.

VII. PERUVIAN CULTURE.—Irregular hours; Dr. Xammar.

The course in cataloging and classification was regarded as perhaps the most vital of all and was therefore assigned twice as much time as any other course. It was admittedly a hard subject to teach, since it was necessary to work almost as if in a vacuum, without a typical United States card catalog as a model for the students. A small collection of books with a complete card catalog had been planned for the school; but it was not easy to find a representative collection of books to catalog or a place to bring them together as a library, since everything was in a state of disorder in the remnants of the National Library. The project had to be abandoned, unfortunately, and the students had to work at what must have seemed an abstraction.

Great stress was laid on cataloging throughout the course, and everything was done to make the classification work as simple as possible. Dr. Basadre wanted the Library of Congress classification for the National Library, but the Dewey system was taught during a good portion of the course to accustom the students to an easier classification scheme. An intensive training in the Library of Congress system was given during the last two months of the term.

Miss Josephine Fabilli, who assisted Dr. Aguayo in this course from March until July, recorded some of the difficulties encountered in the teaching, and I shall summarize briefly a few of her observations. From January until the end of April the class was divided into sections of four, five, or six students, each group meeting at a different hour of the day, depending on when the students were free. By this method each student received much individual attention; but the system was too wearing on the instructors to be continued indefinitely,

since the average of six hours each day spent with the students scarcely allowed the instructors sufficient time to prepare their work in advance. A few lectures were given at the beginning of the term, but these were discontinued in favor of laboratory work.

One of the greatest handicaps was the lack of a sufficient number of the basic textbooks, such as the Dewey and Library of Congress classification schemes, lists of subject headings, etc. An even worse handicap was the lack of time to prepare the course well in advance, to select carefully the books necessary for each cataloging problem, and to prepare a working library for demonstration. Since there were but few books available in the National Library, the instructors could rarely find more than one copy of a book for use in cataloging problems, which meant that each student was given a different book to catalog, with consequent endless revising by the instructors. Also, there was no sure way of measuring the progress of each student, since there was no common basis for comparison. Books were sometimes borrowed from the two largest bookstores in Lima—perhaps seventeen or eighteen copies of one book and as many of another—and by dividing the class in halves, the two books could be cataloged and some measure found of the abilities of each student. This could be done but rarely, however, for the book-dealers complained that these books were returned soiled and could no longer be sold as new books.

There was but one copy of the 1941 edition of the *A.L.A. Catalog Rules*, which it was difficult for two instructors to share, especially in preparing work. There was simply no time to translate the most important rules into Spanish and have them mimeographed for the students. Again, the evening classes,

after the many fatigues of the day, combined to drain the physical resources of students and instructors, and progress was slowed down perceptibly. Yet two hours were simply not available for classes in the morning.

It is obvious from these statements that the cataloging course had to be conducted under many handicaps. However, the untiring devotion of Dr. Aguayo and Miss Fabilli, as well as that of Señorita Andraca, who assisted Dr. Aguayo until March, did much to nullify these disadvantages, and the students made remarkable progress.

The course in reference was divided into two parts, non-Spanish and Spanish reference books. The division was not entirely satisfactory but was made to suit the convenience of the teaching staff. Basic reference books were treated first, then the works in special subject fields. Particular stress was laid on types of reference aids, with thorough explanation of the value of those which do not yet exist in Spanish. The students, in most cases, had no realization of the usefulness of such tools as periodical indexes and needed a demonstration of their value.

Foreign reference books were included, in so far as was feasible, on a par with English, in order to avoid any accusation of narrowness. In many cases, however, there were few foreign reference books, since the tools in English are almost unique, as in the case of Granger's *Index to Poetry and Recitations*. The students appeared eager to learn about new types of reference books and were constantly impressed with the value of similar aids if they could be compiled for their own country or for the larger unit of Latin America. Until they examined some of the reference aids for material on United States history and

government documents, they had no idea how difficult it would be to obtain similar information about their own country. It is only by stressing the great value of such works that efforts will be made to compile reference aids in Spanish.

An attempt was made to teach the criticism of reference books. The necessity for a scholarly approach, for a cool, scientific weighing of a new reference book, was an important point to get across. Before long the students had, for the most part, learned how to look for certain basic requisites in a reference book and to judge severely those books not possessing them.

The greatest handicap in the course lay in the lack of reference books to examine. Many of them had to be described from memory, since some types were too important to be omitted. Every assistance was given by the other libraries in Lima in making the books available to the students. The library of the University of San Marcos, two of whose librarians were in the school, sent books to the study rooms of the school or gave the students special privileges for examining them in the university library itself. Many of the gifts from the United States to the National Library helped to provide material for this course as well as the others—notably gifts from the American Library Association, the University of Chicago, and the H. W. Wilson Company.

When the library film, "The Newcomers Visit the Library," which was kindly loaned to the school by the Wichita Public Library, was shown toward the middle of the term, it was gratifying to hear the "Ahs!" of recognition when the use of certain common reference books was shown and to observe the delight of the students at seeing depicted a simple,

living illustration of what they had been studying.³

The course in library administration tried to emphasize the broader aspects of administration in the first half of the course, beginning with lectures on the more general and theoretical side of library service, the growth of the modern educational concepts inherent in such service, adult education and library extension, service to children, schools, and universities, and service to the blind. The students were much interested in this material—more so than our students in the United States often are. The rest of the course was devoted to the more technical aspects of library administration, such as the library building and its equipment, finances, personnel relations, the organization of departments, and library publicity.

The students were greatly intrigued by the problem of the library building itself and devoured the pictures in Wheeler and Githens' *American Public Library Building*. They were interested in planning a thoroughly modern building, and all the details of flooring, lighting, furniture, etc., were carefully noted. When I later gave an examination which took the form of planning a modern library for a city of sixty thousand inhabitants, floods of details and some clever floor plans were submitted.

Every effort was made to be as precise and concrete as possible in teaching library administration. The various departments were treated in great detail,

³ This film was given several showings with great success. So large was the number of interested guests when the film was shown in the school (in a relatively small room) that it was decided to give additional showings open freely to the public. The film was presented again in the large auditorium of the Colegio de Guadalupe, in connection with a short talk by the writer on the modern library and its services, then in Callao and to a group of secondary-school teachers.

with attempts to give each step in the routines, tracing a book through every stage from its initial selection to its final home in the circulation department. All these things were new, even to the librarians, and questions deluged the lecturer. The library-supply catalogs proved invaluable in illustrating the many new words used. Unfortunately, there is no book in Spanish which goes into sufficient detail concerning such matters, so that as much as possible had to be squeezed into the lectures. In many instances it was difficult to find words to describe library furniture and equipment and the phases of the technical routines. For those who could read English, Moshier and LeFevre's *The Small Public Library* was useful, but more pictures were sorely needed.

There is real need of a good general textbook on library administration in Spanish. It is not easy to find one in English, for that matter. A book on a larger scale than Moshier and LeFevre's, going into considerable detail regarding daily routines, mechanical aids, etc., of the basic sort, with clear explanations and a profusion of illustrations, would prove extremely useful in Latin America. The students were considerably intrigued by such mechanical aids as the electric eraser and the electric stylus, as well as some of the clever circulation devices.

In general, the students were eager to learn the most modern North American library methods. They were quick to perceive the advantages of modern lighting, of reading-rooms arranged for the utmost convenience and comfort of the public, of card catalogs—in short, of all the technical mediums for making library service more efficient. As was shown by their study of the library building, they knew very well what adaptations they

would make to suit local conditions and traditions. They naturally preferred to do their own adapting after they understood clearly the aim and the value of certain North American practices. Such a frame of mind augurs well for the progress of libraries in Latin America.

Miss Margaret Bates of the Library of Congress gave the course on children's libraries from April to July. This course treated the most important aspects of library work with children, covering not only libraries for children in public library systems but also school libraries. A small model library was set up to provide a laboratory for the course and to serve as the nucleus of the children's collection for the National Library. Miss Bates also gave a special course on school libraries to a group of secondary-school teachers selected by the Ministry of Education. The course on children's libraries aroused much interest in the general public, greatly impressed by the novelty of such an undertaking.

The courses in the history of the book and in paleography included the material that would normally be suggested by such titles. The course in paleography, however, laid stress on practical work with Peruvian materials without devoting much time to the historical treatment of the subject. This course and that in children's libraries were made elective; all other courses were required of all students.

From the beginning of the school the great majority of the students were enthusiastic about the opportunity provided to learn a new profession. The students worked very hard and were regular in their attendance—all the more so since 90 per cent attendance was required to qualify for the final examinations. There was no doubt of their intelligent interest in the work, as shown

by both their questions and their examinations. Under such circumstances it was a distinct pleasure to work with them, and their personalities were such as to make the whole atmosphere of the school unusually agreeable. Like all students, they felt overburdened at times during such an intensive course by the amount of material to be mastered, so that various adjustments were made to lighten their burdens, and by the mid-term period they appeared to have acquired sound methods of study, only one student being so entirely unsatisfactory as to be urged to drop out. After the mid-term examinations the teaching staff felt great satisfaction over the general level of student achievement, both in their grasp of the fundamental nature of library science and in their acquirement of some of the library techniques. At the conclusion of the school, only six students failed to receive their certificates, two of them on the basis of insufficient attendance; three of them had been admitted as librarians.

Since most of the students worked during the day, one of the fundamental problems for them was to find time for study. It was a severe handicap both to them and to the school, and some of the students were rather discouraged by it. Nevertheless, it is gratifying to report that many of these same students did very well in their courses, some of them attaining the top bracket in the final grades and being selected for the National Library.

A corollary of this problem of time for study may be found in the system of providing the students with copies of the lectures in some courses. At the very outset of classes the students in reference and library administration asked for copies of the lectures. In view of the

fact that the lecturers in these courses were not gifted with perfect command of the Spanish tongue and that the students found it difficult to obtain equivalent information from the texts at their disposal, arrangements were made to provide copies of all lectures. There were many mechanical difficulties connected with this system, and delay in obtaining copies sometimes forced postponements of examinations; but the system provided the students with something they could use as a textbook in Spanish to eke out the scanty material available on these subjects in Spanish. The disadvantage was that the students were likely to rely too closely on these lectures; but, because of the difficulty experienced by the majority in finding hours to study at the school, it was believed that the copies served a useful purpose.

It seems evident that, notwithstanding the many handicaps from which the school suffered, it was successful in achieving its main purposes—training a professional staff for the National Library and aiding in the development of the library spirit in Peru. Some outside critics, largely political, objected that no librarian could be trained in so short a time. Such a criticism betrayed complete ignorance of the aims of any library school, which attempts only to give its students an introduction to the profession, with no pretension of turning out fully equipped librarians. In its limited term the school set out to give a general view of library science, stressing the fundamentals and making it clear to the students that their studies constituted only a beginning. The students themselves appeared to have a complete comprehension of the goal to be reached, which is more than can be said of the pundits and politicians.

Just how much reorganization of Peruvian libraries will be prompted by the work of this school is hard to forecast. Many small changes will be made, but budgetary difficulties, coupled with a lack of adequate preparation for large-scale reorganization (sometimes linked with a notorious unconcern for any type of reorganization, or shall we say organization?) make further changes unlikely at this point. When the National Library begins to function in its new building, there will be an example of modern administrative organization and services under a competent director to serve as a model for Peruvian libraries.

It would certainly be desirable if another school could be held within the next year to give additional training to some of the graduates of this one and to provide training for more of the librarians of Lima and other Peruvian cities than was possible within the limits of this school. It is hoped that, in due time, a permanent school can be established in connection with the National Library to serve the large region of the west coast, providing a full year of library studies under a trained faculty of Latin Americans.

In conclusion, I should like to emphasize some of the chief lessons to be learned from this project, which may aid in the planning of future schools in Latin America. Some of the difficulties were, undoubtedly, peculiar to this school, and it is to be hoped that future schools will not suffer from wartime transportation.

In view of the painful experience in attempting to work out courses with a minimum of books at hand, it is strongly urged that at least a month's time should be devoted to selecting books and planning courses in the United States, with

ample material available. More time is really needed, as everyone knows, but a month is indispensable. The books selected for use by both the school and the faculty should be shipped at the earliest possible moment, especially if the destination is South America, for even without wartime conditions transportation by boat is slow and by air express prohibitively high.

Even though this school had a term of six months, the time is still too short. It would be preferable to have a one-year course, with Latin-American teachers who have been well trained in North American schools and libraries, so that the duration will not be dependent on the time limitations of visiting instructors from the United States. Perhaps, if the term were a year in length, visiting instructors might come for six-month periods. Naturally, it would be advantageous if the term could be even longer, so as to compensate for the limited time available for students and librarians who must work during the period of their studies. Possibly a two-year course, with a permanent faculty, would be easy to arrange, and the slower training might be preferable for people new to this type of work. In this way, the faculty might occupy administrative posts and teach in their free time, in order to provide sufficient salaries in the traditional Latin-American manner. The chief gain would be that students would have much more time to devote to study.

In order for a library school to be successful, in any part of the world, it is necessary to select the students according to their ability and their apparent aptitude for library work. This question has already been discussed at some length, but it is impossible to emphasize it too strongly. Holding the post of li-

brarian should not be enough to gain automatic admission to a library school. Only those persons who show real promise, both in intelligence and in personality, and who seem likely to wish to continue modern methods in their libraries should be admitted. A strict selection of students, with the resulting quality in library schools, would do much to hasten library progress in Latin America.

A scholarship for graduate study of library science in the United States was available for the student who ranked highest at the end of the school and who seemed likely to profit most from further study. The promise of this scholarship certainly gave added incentive to the students' work. Such an arrangement would be most desirable in any future schools, but it should provide for scholarships of sufficient duration—six months or a year, preferably, since a three-month scholarship, which rushes a person from library to library in a dizzy whirl, is of practically no value, judging from the observation of some of those who have experienced such tours. A period of six months spent in one library would be infinitely more beneficial,

and a year spent in two or more libraries, doing practical work in various departments, would be truly valuable.

Finally, in order to obtain adequate training, under present conditions, a good reading knowledge of English should be a definite requirement for every student of library science. Too many of the basic works are in English to dispense with this requirement if there is any intention of establishing modern library practices in Latin America. One of the chief reasons for Dr. Basadre's grasp of the fundamentals of library service is his superb knowledge of English, which has enabled him to keep up with modern developments in the subject. Political fears or desires should not be allowed to interfere with this basic need. Obviously, there will be no great quantity of books on library science in Spanish for many years, and it is wiser to demand a knowledge of English, which will open up the largest field of library literature now available, than to wait for a sufficient number of books to be written in Spanish. The English requirement can be the open-sesame of library science in Latin America.

THE ORGANIZATION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS FOR RESEARCH IN ENGLISH LITERATURE¹

RAYNARD SWANK

INTRODUCTION

MILLIONS of dollars are spent each year by American libraries for card catalogs and shelf classifications. The American librarian exerts a major part of his professional effort in the compilation and maintenance of these comprehensive tools, which, in his considered judgment, are the most efficient, practicable forms of bibliographical organization. Accordingly, he does not sponsor a comparable program for the development and exploitation of published bibliographies. Such devices, in his opinion, comprise valuable supplements to the more basic and necessary bibliothecal tools, but they offer no adequate alternative method of guiding the reader through the world of books.

Yet today the librarian is confronted with an ever increasing flood of bibliographies—a flood created less by him in the service of his readers than by his readers in their own service. This large and heterogeneous mass of bibliographical apparatus cannot be explained as a supplement to the library tools. To the extent that its *raison d'être* coincides with that of library catalogs and classifications, it grows in opposition to them. Indeed, its very presence tends to deny that the professional librarian has conceived an adequate solution to the vast and manifold problems of bibliographical organization.

During the last three-quarters of a century a number of librarians and interested scholars have voiced their disapproval of the library's bibliographical program. This minority opinion has roused from time to time heated controversies about the relative merits of catalogs, classifications, and bibliographies. In recent years more and more librarians have come to question the values of catalogs and classifications and to reconsider the potentialities of bibliography. Should librarians continue to develop their catalogs and classifications along present lines, or should they place greater emphasis on the production and exploitation of published bibliographies?

Thus stated, the problem is, of course, greatly oversimplified. There is no clear choice between two perfected, alternative methods of doing a single job. On the one hand, the library tools perform a great variety of different services for a great variety of different readers. On the other hand, there are bibliographies of every kind and degree of usefulness. Both forms of organization are undergoing constant change and are capable of being molded to fit still unforeseen needs. There is no conceivable way of solving the problem as a whole. Yet it can be solved piecemeal, first, by isolating particular jobs which need to be done for different readers; second, by studying the performance of existing devices—bibliographies as well as catalogs and classifications—in relation to those particular jobs; and, third, by projecting a program which will take into account

¹ The essential portion of a dissertation submitted to the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in June, 1944, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

both the present and the potential values of each form of organization. When the inventory is taken, it may well turn out that there are plenty of jobs for all forms of organization; but they should be specific jobs, carefully defined and allocated to the best available tools.

This study was conceived as a small contribution to such an inventory. It deals only with the needs of a single group of readers—the working scholar in the field of English literature—and with a single bibliographical function—the revelatory or “subject” function. Even within these limits it does not undertake a comprehensive survey of the existing apparatus; it attempts only to illustrate the usefulness of different kinds of tools in relation to typical needs. Its results are not conclusive, but they are highly suggestive. Above all, it possesses the virtue of focusing attention not upon any particular device as such but upon certain definable goals, to the achievement of which many tools may contribute in greater or lesser degree.

SCOPE AND METHOD

Before the exact nature of this study is described, it may be well to define more clearly the bibliographical function with which it is concerned—the one which is often loosely called the “subject” function. The field of enumerative bibliography—the term is taken here to mean any listing or grouping of library materials, whether in books, on cards, or on library shelves—performs two more or less distinctive functions. It enables the reader to locate information about, or copies of, particular publications already known to him; and it reveals to him groups or classes of materials which are not already known to him but which may be relevant to his needs. The former function is commonly asso-

ciated with the author arrangement of books and the latter with the subject arrangement. Neither function, however, belongs exclusively to either of these two arrangements—a fact which denies one the convenience of designating the former as the “author” function and the latter as the “subject” function. According to the conventions of bibliographical citation, access to specified publications is most frequently provided by author-title repertories; but it may also be provided by subject, form, period, or other kinds of arrangements, depending upon what is known about the required book. Thus, to avoid ambiguity—and for lack of a better term—this function is here called *repertorial*. Similarly, the groups or classes of publications sought most frequently are perhaps those relating to particular subjects; but those composed by particular authors, in particular literary forms, in particular times and places, and so forth, also constitute groups or classes which are often sought by the reader. In the sense that all kinds of classes represent subjects for study, though not necessarily subjects of books, one may still speak of a subject function; but, again to avoid ambiguity, it may be better to adopt another term. Thus, the function of revealing groups or classes of publications, without reference to any single kind of class, is here called *revelatory*. This study, then, is a criticism, from the point of view of the English scholar, of bibliographical devices which are, or can be, used for revelatory purposes.

The comprehensive criticism of a revelatory device requires consideration of a variety of interrelated factors which may affect its usefulness. These may be grouped under four heads: the classifications or headings used, the materials revealed under those headings, the man-

ner in which those materials are described (this, of course, does not apply to shelf classification), and the form (book, card, shelf, etc.) of the device itself. With respect to the classifications used, bibliographies, catalogs, and shelf arrangements may use different kinds of class concepts; the concepts of any particular kind may vary in breadth, modernity, etc., and different terms or headings may be used to designate them; and the concepts or headings may be arranged in different sequences. With respect to the kinds and amounts of materials revealed under particular headings, whole categories of useful materials may be omitted from certain tools;² differences may occur in the extent to which books and serials are analyzed;³ and materials bearing different relations to particular subjects may be listed.⁴ The manner in which the materials are described also affects the usefulness of a device; and the form in which a device is cast implicates the convenience with which it may be consulted and imposes limitations upon the classifications used and the kinds of materials revealed.

Though all these factors require consideration in the criticism of revelatory devices, this study treats only the kinds of class concepts used, the breadth, modernity, etc., of the concepts themselves, and the kinds and amounts of materials

revealed under them. It does not treat the order or sequence of headings, the manner in which materials are described, or the physical forms of devices. It should also be noted that this study does not deal with the ability and willingness of readers to use different devices or with the administrative problems related to their production and organization for use. In other words, this question is asked: if the English scholar already has the appropriate tools at hand, if he is able and willing to use them, and if they are satisfactorily arranged, to what extent will he find the required materials brought together under headings which are relevant to his needs? The further questions are then asked: which tools, or kinds of tools, produce the best results, what are the reasons for differences in their performance, and to what extent do they supplement each other? If these questions can be only partially answered with respect to the needs of the English scholar, it should be possible to make a few tentative suggestions about future library policy.

In order to answer these questions, it was necessary to devise methods (1) for obtaining data on the subjects studied by the English scholar and the materials used in pursuit of those studies and (2) for testing the performance of the library catalog, the shelf classification, and the available bibliographies in the light of those data. For information about the needs of the English scholar, this study referred to published records of his researches—records which indicate both the subjects investigated and the library materials consulted. The 108 doctoral dissertations produced in this field at the University of Chicago from 1930 to 1942 were examined as the basis for this study. Obviously, the problems

² E.g., periodicals or books in foreign languages. The published catalog or bibliography necessarily omits books published at later dates, and library catalogs and classifications omit materials not owned by the library.

³ The shelf classification, of course, permits no analysis.

⁴ I.e., texts, primary sources, and secondary sources. These may be defined as follows: texts are books which are themselves the subjects being investigated; primary sources are materials through which, or by means of which, some other kind of subject is studied; and secondary sources are reports of previous studies of a subject.

posed by these dissertations cannot be assumed to be coextensive with those posed by literary scholarship in general, but it can be assumed that the types of subjects covered are important elements of the field and that the kinds of library materials used are not atypical. These dissertations were classified by the types of subjects studied and the kinds of materials consulted, and individual cases were selected as examples of the types which occurred most frequently. Cases were selected which exemplified as clearly and economically as possible the significant characteristics of their types and which, at the same time, were as free as possible of extraneous and irrelevant characteristics. If too large a number of theses satisfied this criterion, a further selection was based on the recency and excellence of the studies.

The library materials used in connection with the relevant subjects in the cases were then listed; and the library catalog, classification, and bibliographies were tested for the extent to which they reveal those materials under appropriate headings. This method provided a measure of the help which those tools could have given to the researcher, if he had consulted them, in collecting the materials which he ultimately used. Since no information was available concerning the tools which he actually consulted, it was assumed that, regardless of how or where he obtained his references, the scholar did eventually assemble the best possible materials for his particular purposes. It was also assumed that at least the most useful of those materials—the ones which deserve the fullest treatment in bibliographical devices—were cited in the dissertations.

The process of measuring the degree in which different tools revealed those materials under relevant headings in-

volved several problems. First, it was necessary to compile for each case a standard list of possible headings which would be accepted as relevant and to classify those headings by degrees of relevance. Four crude categories of headings were used—specific, subordinate, related, and general.⁵ Entries under specific headings were assumed to be the most useful and those under general headings the least useful. Each of the bibliographical devices to be tested was searched for all these relevant headings and for the required titles which were revealed under those headings.⁶ A gross count was then taken of all titles revealed under all relevant headings in each device. Since this count did not distinguish between listings under more or less useful headings, another count was also taken. First, the number of titles which appeared under the specific headings was noted.⁷ Second, the numbers of additional titles which appeared under subordinate, related, and general headings respectively were noted. For each case, then, these data on the various tools were compared. Explanations of the variations observed were sought in the nature of the headings and in the kinds of materials represented.

The library catalog and classification

⁵ Specific headings were defined as those which correspond closely to the topics of the cases and which therefore describe the lists of materials as a whole. Subordinate headings are those which correspond to subtopics in the cases. Related headings are those which are more or less oblique to the specific headings—that is, which cover some of the same ground but do not fit the conceptual pattern of the cases. And general headings are the broad fields or disciplines into which the specific headings fall. As will be noted later, these categories were not rigidly applied to studies of individual authors.

⁶ Editions were ignored.

⁷ When the same materials were listed under more than one heading, credit was given for a listing under the most useful one.

tested by this study are those of the University of Chicago Libraries. These libraries use the Library of Congress subject headings in their general catalog and the Library of Congress classification on their shelves—both, of course, with some minor variations. Since these variations are not significant in the areas covered by this study, they are not discussed in this report. The shelf classification was treated as though all classified books were together in one sequence on the shelves—a condition which did not exist and could not exist on the shelves of any active library. The showing made by the classification in this study should therefore be discounted to some extent. Regarding the published bibliographies and catalogs to be tested, no rigid limitations were adopted, except that only lists of materials were considered. With respect to each case, an effort was made to get together at least the most important tools which the scholar might have used, regardless of their character. Even bibliographies published later than the dates of the cases were included.⁸ In this report, only those tools which produced comparatively good results or which were retained to illustrate special points are discussed.

RESEARCH IN ENGLISH LITERATURE

Two complementary procedures were used in classifying the 108 Chicago doctoral dissertations. First, general classifications were obtained from recent studies of literary scholarship.⁹ These

⁸ This oddity is justified by the fact that this study is concerned primarily with the potential values of different *kinds* of devices—kinds which can be illustrated as well by later as by earlier devices. The listing of later materials in later tools could in no case affect the results, since those materials were not checked.

⁹ The most helpful work consulted was Norman Foerster *et al.*, *Literary Scholarship: Its Aims and Methods* (Chapel Hill: University of North Caro-

lina Press, 1941). Among the other works consulted were André Morize, *Problems and Methods of Literary History* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1922) and Ronald S. Crane, "History versus Criticism in the University Study of Literature," *English Journal*, College ed., XXIV (1935), 645-67.

served to indicate the nature and variety of the subjects which are pursued, or could be pursued, by the English scholar and to orient the investigator in the theory of literary scholarship. Second, the types of subjects embraced by those classifications were sought among the theses, and the types of subjects actually found among the theses were used to modify those classifications. After a number of experiments, a scheme was evolved which described the dissertations with reasonable accuracy and completeness and yet did little violence to currently accepted theories of literary scholarship. The 108 theses were thus classified by types of subjects given major emphasis. Most of the theses, however, treated also of minor or related subjects. For example, a study of a particular literary work might also investigate the life of the author, the literary background of his times, the general cultural background, or all three. A more complete picture of the frequency with which different types of subjects were studied was obtained by breaking down each thesis into its component parts and by distributing the parts themselves, instead of the whole theses, among the appropriate categories. Under each category, then, were noted all instances in which that type of subject was pursued, whether with major or minor emphasis, in all the theses. Although this method disregarded the relations in which different subjects were studied, it proved to be effective for the purposes of this study.

All the theses were historical. There were no original studies in the theory of literature or criticism, no original criticisms of literary works, and—as was anticipated—no examples of imaginative writing. The principal general types of subjects encountered were history of literature (112 examples), history of criticism (18 examples), and the cultural background (72 examples). Twelve studies of miscellaneous subjects, including 5 on the history of the theater and 3 on the history of language,¹⁰ were dropped from consideration. Of the variety of subtypes identified, those which occurred most frequently in each of the three principal categories were selected for further investigation. These were the following: studies of textual aspects of individual literary works or the works of individual authors (21 examples), studies of subject aspects of individual literary works or the works of individual authors (29 examples), studies of literary works written within particular periods and localities and containing materials on special subjects (12 examples), studies of critical works written within particular periods and localities and treating special topics in the theory of criticism (5 examples), studies of critical works written within particular periods and localities and relating to the literary works of individual authors (7 examples), and studies of the general cultural background (72 examples). Biography comprised another important category (28 examples), but sufficient time was not available for conducting an additional case study. It is noteworthy that literary forms played only a minor role in these studies.¹¹

¹⁰ Linguistic studies of particular literary works were classed as history of literature.

¹¹ Only one study treated the formal aspects of an author's works and only one the literary works

The six types of studies thus selected do not, of course, collectively represent the range of possibilities in literary scholarship, but it is reasonable to suppose that they are among the more important elements of the field and therefore have general significance. It cannot be assumed that they have occurred elsewhere or will recur even at Chicago with the same relative frequency; but wherever and whenever they do occur or recur, the results of the investigation should be applicable to them.

STUDIES OF INDIVIDUAL LITERARY WORKS OR THE WORKS OF INDIVIDUAL AUTHORS

This heading embraces the first two types of studies noted above—those relating to the textual and subject aspects of a single work or of the works of a single author. Since these two types are closely related, they may be discussed together. There are four distinguishing characteristics of this general type. First, the object of study is the literary work itself—not the author or the culture represented by the work. Second, attention is focused either on the works of a single author or on a single title. Third, study is further restricted either to textual problems or to the subject content of those works. And, fourth, the library materials used consist of texts of the literary works studied; primary sources, or contemporary materials about those texts; and secondary sources, or reports of previous scholarship on those texts. The ideal bibliographical tool for this type of study would therefore use authors and titles as major headings, and under each title it would reveal the

of a period and locality and composed in a particular form. Seven, however, treated works on a special subject and composed in a particular form. Of these, six dealt with special subjects in fiction only.

various editions of that title and the primary and secondary sources which are useful in the study of the relevant aspects of that title. This, of course, is one of the most familiar bibliographical arrangements.

The case studies of this general type of subject were arbitrarily limited to secondary sources. The listing of the texts themselves by author and title presents no problems which need consideration here; and the primary sources constitute a comparatively small body of data—stationers' records, notices in magazines and newspapers, isolated statements in letters, diaries, etc.—which is required only for the textual studies. Two cases were selected as examples of textual studies. Virginia T. Everett's "A Study of Scribal Editing in Twelve Manuscripts of the *Canterbury Tales*" (1940) illustrates studies of variants and relationships among the manuscripts or editions of a literary work, and James E. Savage's "Beaumont and Fletcher's *Cupid's Revenge*" (1942) illustrates studies of authorship and dates of composition. Clarence H. Faust's "Jonathan Edwards's View of Human Nature" (1935) was selected to illustrate studies of the subject content of an author's works.

Everett undertook to define the types of conscious or deliberate editing performed by the scribes who executed selected manuscripts of the *Canterbury Tales*. In addition to photostat copies of the manuscripts themselves, a few works on textual criticism and scribal editing in general, and a few catalogs of manuscripts, Everett consulted thirty-five secondary sources about the manuscripts and the textual problems relating to them. This list included thirty book titles and five articles in serial publications—four of these in periodicals. Of

the thirty books, twelve treated specifically of Chaucer, six treated also of other matters, and twelve consisted of introductions and notes to critical editions of Chaucer's works. Three Chicago dissertations were among the books. All but one of these titles were in the University of Chicago Libraries.

If one were to search appropriate bibliographical devices for materials of this kind, he might reasonably expect to find them revealed under headings for Chaucer and for his *Canterbury Tales*, and, ideally, under subdivisions for works about the manuscripts and for works of textual criticism. The introductions and commentaries to editions of the *Tales*, if not found among the secondary studies, might at least be expected to appear in the places provided for editions of Chaucer's works.

The L.C. classification, as applied at the University of Chicago, revealed twenty-one of the thirty-five titles under "Chaucer" and all subdivisions, both relevant and irrelevant, under "Chaucer." None appeared under the subdivision "Textual Criticism," and no subdivision for the manuscripts was used. The card catalog listed nineteen of the same titles under "Chaucer." Two of these appeared under the subdivision "Manuscripts." The *Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature*, like the L.C. classification, revealed twenty-one of the titles, but nine of these were analyzed under the subdivision for manuscripts of the *Tales*. Hammond's Chaucer manual, together with its supplements,¹² revealed thirty-one of the thirty-

¹² Eleanor P. Hammond, *Chaucer: A Bibliographical Manual* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1908); Dudley D. Griffith, *A Bibliography of Chaucer, 1908-1924* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1926); Willard E. Martin, Jr., *A Chaucer Bibliography, 1925-1933* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1935). The supplements to John Edwin

five sources, with sixteen appearing under subdivisions for the manuscripts. Three of the four titles not revealed were the Chicago dissertations, of which only one appeared under "Chaucer" on the library shelves and none under that heading in the catalog.¹³

Savage's "Beaumont and Fletcher's *Cupid's Revenge*" was a critical edition of which two chapters of the Introduction were devoted to the problems of date and authorship. In addition to the texts of *Cupid's Revenge*, a few contemporary or primary sources which bore directly on these topics, and a group of background materials on contemporary events to which the play alluded, Savage consulted twenty-one secondary sources. Of these, fifteen were books and six were periodical articles. Three of the fifteen books were editions of Beaumont and Fletcher's plays which were used for their editors' commentaries; six were books which treated generally of the drama and stage of the period; and six treated specifically of Beaumont and Fletcher, or of Massinger or Field, whose collaboration with Beaumont and Fletcher has been suspected. All the titles were in the library.

In searching appropriate bibliographies for materials of this kind, one might expect to find any or all of these titles brought together under the authors, Beaumont and Fletcher, or the title, *Cupid's Revenge*. Ideally, one might hope to find many of them listed under subdivisions for works about the date and authorship of the play.

Wells, *A Manual of the Writings in Middle English, 1050-1400* (New Haven: Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 1916) were used to bring Martin up to date.

¹³ For lists of the relevant headings used in the tools tested in connection with each case study, for lists of the required titles revealed under those headings, and for critical discussions of those lists, see the complete report of this investigation.

The L.C. classification revealed six of the twenty-one titles under "Beaumont" and "Fletcher" and all their subdivisions. One of these appeared under the subdivision for general criticism. The card catalog relisted the six titles revealed by the shelf classification and added two more, making eight in all. The *CBEL* revealed all of the eight titles appearing in the catalog and added two of the six periodical articles. Eight of these ten sources were listed under the general subdivision "Biography and Criticism." The British Museum's *General Catalogue* listed under "Beaumont and Fletcher" the same eight titles which the card catalog revealed. Potter's *Bibliography of Beaumont and Fletcher*¹⁴ was the only special bibliography found which embraced *Cupid's Revenge*. This listed all four of the titles which had been published by 1890.

Faust's "Jonathan Edwards's View of Human Nature" analyzed certain aspects of Edwards' philosophical and religious thought. In addition to authoritative texts of Edwards' works and materials on the intellectual background of the period, Faust consulted fifteen secondary sources. Of these, nine were books; five dealt specifically with Edwards, three dealt also with other matters, and one was an early edition of Edwards' works. The other six titles were articles in serial publications. One title was not in the library.

The L.C. classification revealed four of these fifteen sources under three of the four places which it provided for Edwards.¹⁵ The card catalog listed, in

¹⁴ Alfred C. Potter, *A Bibliography of Beaumont and Fletcher* (Cambridge: Library of Harvard University, 1890).

¹⁵ PS741 in "American Literature," B874 under "History and Systems" in "Philosophy," BX7117 and BX7260 under "Congregationalism" in "Religion."

addition to those four sources, two new ones, making a total of six. The eleventh edition (1910) of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* included eight of the titles, the *Dictionary of American Biography* nine, and the *Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics* nine also. The *Cambridge History of American Literature*, which contained an exhaustive bibliography of Edwards up to 1917, listed all eleven of the titles which had been published by that date. One of the four later titles was among those listed under "Jonathan Edwards" in the catalog and classification, but it was also listed in two current bibliographies.¹⁶

In all three of these cases the available bibliographies could have offered more help—in two cases much more help—to the respective students than the library catalog and classification. The performance of the shelf classification was duplicated for the most part by the card catalog; and the catalog supplied only one title in Faust's case, three in Everett's case, and none in Savage's case which were not supplied by either the *CBEL* or the *CHAL*. In each instance the unique titles were supplied by other bibliographies.

STUDIES OF LITERARY WORKS WRITTEN WITHIN PARTICULAR PERIODS AND LO- CALITIES AND CONTAINING MATERIALS ON SPECIAL SUBJECTS

This is one of the many types of studies which, instead of being limited to individual titles or authors, deal with larger groups of literary works or with the literary tradition. There are four general characteristics of this type. First, these studies, like those of individual authors, are directed primarily

at literary works. Second, they are restricted to the literature of well-defined periods and localities. Third, they segregate for separate study the literature which treats special subjects. And, fourth, the library materials consulted are of two general categories: authoritative editions of the literary texts themselves and secondary sources about the relevant subject aspects of those texts. The ideal bibliography for this type of study would therefore classify literary works by periods and places of composition and by special subjects, and it would list with those texts the important authorities about their subject content.

The thesis selected to illustrate this type of study was George T. Buckley's "Rationalism in Sixteenth-Century English Literature" (1931). Buckley traced the reaction to religious unbelief through the literature of an entire century. The bibliographies yielded by the essential parts of this study contained sixty-seven titles, of which forty were English literary texts of the period, eighteen were secondary studies about those texts, and nine were contemporary translations of foreign literature into English. The translations were included because they became part of the English tradition when they were first made available to the English reading public. The forty English texts, all of which expressed the reaction against religious unbelief, embraced a variety of literary forms. The secondary studies included books, periodicals, and continuations. All but four of these titles were in the library.

If one were to search for materials of this kind in appropriate bibliographies, he might expect to find these titles brought together among literary works under three types of headings: periods, countries, and subjects. Sixteenth-century England was, of course, the relevant period and country. The relevant

¹⁶ "American Bibliography," issued annually in the *Publications of the Modern Language Association*; and the *Annual Bibliography of English Language and Literature*, issued by the Modern Humanities Research Association.

specific subject was religious rationalism or religious unbelief. Free thought, atheism, agnosticism, skepticism, and Christian apologetics were accepted as relevant subordinate headings; and doctrinal theology, religion, and philosophy were accepted as relevant general headings. One might expect the translations to be listed separately in a place near the English texts of the same period.

Since the card catalog did not organize literary texts or translations by periods and countries, it provided no direct approach to these materials. Eighteen of the forty English texts were listed only in the author catalog, and twenty were entered as nonliterary works in the subject catalog—only three, however, under subjects relevant to this case. Two of the eighteen secondary studies appeared under headings for the English literature of the period. The L.C. classification did organize literary texts by periods and countries, though without subject subdivisions. Twenty-nine of the fifty-eight English texts and secondary sources, but none of the translations, were brought together under the relevant literature headings. One text and one translation appeared in relevant subject classes. The *CBEL* revealed thirty of the forty English texts, fourteen of the eighteen secondary studies, and eight of the nine translations under its heading for English literature of the period. Twelve of the texts appeared under relevant subject subdivisions. The *Short-Title Catalogue*¹⁷ listed thirty-three of the forty English texts. The other seven were first published after 1640.

¹⁷ A. W. Pollard and G. R. Redgrave (comps.), *A Short-Title Catalogue of Books Printed in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and of English Books Printed Abroad, 1475-1640* (London: Bibliographical Society, 1926).

Thus the *CBEL* was found to produce far better results for this type of subject than the shelf classification, and the shelf classification was found to produce far better results than the dictionary catalog.

STUDIES OF CRITICAL WORKS WRITTEN WITHIN PARTICULAR PERIODS AND LOCALITIES AND TREATING SPECIAL TOPICS IN THE THEORY OF CRITICISM

Studies of this type¹⁸ also possess four general characteristics. First, the principal object of study is the work of literary criticism, not the literary work or the work of literary history. Attention is directed to critical expressions wherever they may appear—in book reviews, periodical essays, prefaces to editions of literary works, general treatises, etc., even in literary works themselves or in predominantly historical studies. Second, these studies are restricted to the critical expressions of particular periods and countries. Third, they are further restricted to works which contain statements relating to particular problems or theories of criticism, without regard to the actual literary works which may have prompted those statements. And, fourth, the library materials consulted include the critical texts themselves and secondary sources about the theories and problems discussed in those texts. The ideal bibliographical device for this type of study would therefore segregate texts which contain discussions of critical theory; it would arrange them by periods and countries and by the special topics discussed; and it would arrange with those texts the appropriate secondary studies—that is, the histories of critical theory.

¹⁸ Closely related to these studies are those treating art theory and criticism in general. There were four examples of such studies among the Chicago dissertations.

Norman F. Maclean's "The Theory of Lyric Poetry in England from the Renaissance to Coleridge" (1940) was selected to illustrate this type of study. Maclean traced the rising fortune of lyric poetry in England from 1656 to the early nineteenth century. For the period 1656-1798 he consulted sixty-five works which contained discussions of the nature of lyric poetry. These included books, critical essays, reviews, prefaces and notes to editions of poems, textbooks, even occasional passages from poems themselves. In addition to these texts, he consulted a few secondary studies about the criticism of the period or about particular critics. Only the texts were retained for the case study. All but three were in the library.

If one were to search appropriate bibliographies for materials of this kind, he might expect to find these titles listed under any one or any combination of three kinds of headings—periods, countries, and special topics—in the sections devoted to literary criticism. The relevant country and period were England of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Lyric poetry was the relevant specific subject. Odes, sonnets, songs, and elegies were accepted as relevant subordinate subjects; and poetry, poetics, and literature were accepted as relevant general subjects. It should be noted that Maclean's study dealt with English criticism of lyric poetry, not with criticism of English lyric poetry.

The L.C. classification provided headings for theory and history of criticism, theory of poetry, and special kinds of poetry; but it provided no specific heading for history of the theory of lyric poetry. Only two of the sixty-five texts were revealed under all relevant headings, and those appeared under the heading for modern English poetics. The great ma-

jority of the texts were classed with the literary works criticized. The catalog revealed eight of the texts under the general headings for criticism, history and criticism of literature, poetics, and poetry. The *CBEL* revealed thirty-six of the sixty-five titles in the sections devoted to English criticism of the relevant period. Of these, seventeen were listed under the specific heading for English criticism, 1660-1800, about lyric and epic poetry. Draper's bibliography of eighteenth-century English aesthetics¹⁹ and Bosker's *Literary Criticism in the Age of Johnson*²⁰ each listed twenty-two of the texts.²¹

Thus neither the shelf classification nor the card catalog could have offered substantial help in bringing together the texts required by Maclean. The *CBEL*, on the other hand, produced fairly good results; and either of two other bibliographies—Draper or Bosker—could have been used to supplement the *CBEL*. Only one title not listed in the *CBEL* appeared under a relevant heading in the dictionary catalog.

STUDIES OF CRITICAL WORKS WRITTEN WITHIN PARTICULAR PERIODS AND LO- CALITIES AND RELATING TO THE LITER- ARY WORKS OF INDIVIDUAL AUTHORS

These are studies in the history of practical criticism, as contrasted with those of critical theory—studies which

¹⁹ John W. Draper, *Eighteenth Century English Aesthetics: A Bibliography* (Heidelberg: Carl Winters Universitätsbuchhandlung, 1931).

²⁰ Aisoo Bosker, *Literary Criticism in the Age of Johnson* (Gröningen: J. B. Wolters, 1930).

²¹ J. E. Spingarn's *Critical Essays of the Seventeenth Century* (3 vols.; Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1908-9) and W. H. Durham's *Critical Essays of the Eighteenth Century, 1700-1725* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1915) together listed twelve of the titles. George Saintsbury's *A History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe* (3 vols.; Edinburgh: W. Blackwood & Sons, 1922-29) was not searched.

trace the critical estimates placed by different times and places upon particular literary works. They are concerned more with the values actually assigned to literary works than with the critical theories applied. Four general characteristics may be noted in this type. First, the main object of study is the work of literary criticism, not the literary work criticized. Second, these studies are restricted to critical works written in particular periods and localities. Third, they are further restricted to criticisms relating to the literary works of individual authors (not to critical theories, as in the preceding type). And, fourth, the library materials consulted include the critical texts and secondary sources.

The thesis selected to represent this type of study was Arthur L. Vogelback's "The Literary Reputation of Mark Twain in America, 1869-1885" (1938). The three chapters which dealt with critical estimates of Twain as a funnyman, as a fictionist, and as a philosopher referred to twenty-four books and magazine articles published in America between 1869 and 1885; to forty-one contemporary reviews, notices, etc., of books by Twain; and to eleven secondary sources, of which all but one appeared in books.²³ Three of the contemporary texts were not in the library.

If one were to search appropriate bibliographies for this kind of material, he might expect to find these titles listed either by period and country under a heading for criticism of Mark Twain's works or in a section for Mark Twain under a heading for the critical works of this period and country. In either case, the relevant headings are literary criticism, the author criticized, and the peri-

od and country which produced the criticism.

The L.C. classification revealed none of the sixty-five contemporary criticisms of Twain either under "Clemens" in "American Literature" or under the general classes for literary criticism. Seven of the eleven secondary sources, however, appeared under "Biography, Criticism, etc." of "Clemens." The card catalog revealed the same seven titles under "Clemens," though without subdivision, and added one contemporary text. Whereas the *CHAL* performed well in the case of Edwards, it offered less help here than either of the library tools. Only two of the secondary sources and none of the texts were listed. If, in support of the *CHAL*, Vogelback had consulted the *Annual Bibliography of English Language and Literature*, he would have found six more of the secondary sources. The "American Bibliography" in the *PMLA* would have added still another, making nine in all. Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature* revealed six of the fifty-two contemporary magazine articles and reviews under "Clemens." Henderson's *Mark Twain*²⁴ listed eleven of the contemporary periodical references, including five of the six which appeared in Poole. Blair's *Native American Humor*²⁵ listed eight of the eleven secondary sources, plus seven of the contemporary texts which had not appeared in any of the preceding tools.

None of these tools approximated the ideal bibliographical device for this type of study. Nevertheless, by searching a variety of published bibliographies, Vogelback could have obtained references to nine of the eleven secondary sources

²³ Archibald Henderson, *Mark Twain* (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1912).

²⁴ Walter Blair, *Native American Humor (1800-1900)* (New York: American Book Co., 1937).

²⁵ Sixty-four critical items from three newspapers were omitted from the case study.

and nineteen of the sixty-four contemporary texts. The eight references provided by the library tools would have added only one unique title to that list.

STUDIES OF THE GENERAL CULTURAL BACKGROUND

Seventy-two of the Chicago theses made excursions into the cultural background of literary activity. Sixty-one of these were made in connection with studies of literary works or of literary criticism, while eleven were independent studies in cultural history. Despite the great breadth and variety of these studies, certain characteristics were common to all. First, in this type of study, the object of inquiry is not the book but the intellectual, social, or physical phenomena of the culture which it represents. Second, just as studies of the literary tradition are carefully dated and localized, so also are these contiguous studies of the milieu. Third, these studies are usually limited to more or less specific aspects of the milieu—philosophical, educational, etc. And, fourth, the required library materials consist of primary and secondary sources. Literary works may be included among the primary sources, but only if they are useful as historical evidence. The ideal bibliography would therefore arrange both primary and secondary historical materials by periods, places, and subjects.

Two theses were selected to illustrate this type of subject. For a comparatively simple case, the background study in Clarence H. Faust's "Jonathan Edwards's View of Human Nature" (1935) was chosen. For a more complex case, Kenneth Gantz's "The Beginnings of Darwinian Ethics, 1859-1871" (1937) was chosen. In his study of Edwards' ideas on human nature, Faust referred to various primary sources on corre-

sponding aspects of the thought of Edwards' times. From these sources, three separate lists were compiled: one on original sin and the nature of virtue (twenty-six titles), one on free will and determinism (twenty-one titles), and one on the faculties of the mind (fifteen titles). Each consisted of works composed in seventeenth- and eighteenth-century England and America; and each contained only books, with the exception of two periodical articles which appeared in one of the three lists. No secondary sources were included in the lists. The three lists were treated as separate case studies. Since similar results from the same bibliographical devices were obtained for all three studies, only the first is reported here.

Of the twenty-six primary sources used to illustrate seventeenth- and eighteenth-century English and American ideas about original sin and the nature of virtue, nineteen were English and seven were American. One might expect to find these titles listed in appropriate bibliographies by periods, countries, and subjects. The specific subjects accepted as relevant were original sin, depravity, sin, vice, and virtue. Origin of evil, good, fall of man, man, and human nature were accepted as relevant related subjects; and religion, theology, doctrinal theology, philosophy of religion, ethics, moral philosophy, morality, Christian ethics, and philosophy were accepted as relevant general subjects. In addition, deism, Arminianism, Calvinism, and Congregationalism were accepted as relevant "doctrinal" headings which might be used to express the bias of different publications toward this controversial subject.

The L.C. classification revealed seventeen of the twenty-six titles under all relevant headings. Of these, eleven were

classed by period and country under "History and Systems" in "Philosophy" and "Ethics," four were classed by special subjects—two of these under specific subjects—and four by schools of doctrine.²⁵ The card catalog revealed eighteen of the twenty-six titles under all relevant headings. Of these, seventeen were listed under subject headings proper—five under specific subjects—and two under doctrinal headings. No effective historical approach was provided. Although the *CBEL* was presumably limited to literary works, it revealed seventeen of the nineteen English sources under philosophy and religion of the relevant periods. The *CHAL* revealed only one of the seven American titles. Dexter's *Collections toward a Bibliography of Congregationalism*²⁶ associated five of the seven American titles with the Congregationalism of the period. Watt's *Bibliotheca Britannica*²⁷ revealed ten of the titles under subject headings, with four of them under specific headings. Rand's *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects*,²⁸ using a pure subject approach, listed fourteen of the twenty-six titles under all relevant subjects, with five under specific subjects. Malcom's *Theological Index*²⁹ revealed nineteen of the titles under all relevant headings. Of these, thirteen appeared under the relevant subject head-

ings—eleven under specific subjects—and ten appeared under doctrinal headings. Hurst's *Literature of Theology*³⁰ revealed a total of ten titles, of which one appeared under a specific subject.³¹

Gantz's "The Beginning of Darwinian Ethics, 1859-1871" dealt with the rise of evolutionary ethics before the publication of Darwin's *Descent of Man*. The Introduction and the chapter on natural selection in ethics, 1863-68, cited eighty-three sources—sixty-six primary and seventeen secondary. Thirty-five were books (twenty-four primary and eleven secondary) and forty-eight were articles (forty-two primary and six secondary). All the primary sources were published in England during the 1860's and expressed the evolutionary, as contrasted with the traditional Christian, ethical doctrines. The eighty-three titles were all owned by the University Libraries.

The relevant country and period headings under which Gantz might have expected to find these materials listed in appropriate bibliographical tools were, of course, England of the 1860's. The relevant specific subject was evolutionary or Darwinian ethics. A large number of overlapping related subjects were also considered relevant. These included evolution, origin of species, Darwinism, natural selection, heredity, variation, and adaptation; ethics, morality, moral philosophy, and ethology; man, anthropology, origin and antiquity of man, prehistoric and primitive man, archeology, races, ethnology, animals, and

²⁵ Occasionally, titles appeared in more than one class.

²⁶ H. M. Dexter, *The Congregationalism of the Last Three Hundred Years. . . . With a Bibliographical Appendix* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1880).

²⁷ Robert Watt, *Bibliotheca Britannica* (2 vols.; Edinburgh: Archibald Constable & Co., 1824).

²⁸ Benjamin Rand (comp.), *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1905).

²⁹ Howard Malcom, *Theological Index* (Boston: Gould & Lincoln, 1868).

³⁰ J. F. Hurst, *Literature of Theology* (New York: Hunt & Eaton, 1896).

³¹ In all three cases drawn from Faust's thesis, the subject catalog averaged 15 per cent of the required titles under specific subjects and 47 per cent under all relevant subjects; Rand averaged 17 per cent under specific subjects and 42 per cent under all; and Malcom averaged 40 per cent under specific subjects and 51 per cent under all.

zoölogy. The relevant general fields into which these subjects fell were biology, natural history, science, psychology, and philosophy.

Under all these relevant headings, the L.C. classification revealed twenty-three of the thirty-five books. Of these, nine (five primary and four secondary) were classed historically under "Philosophy" and "Ethics," and fourteen (eleven primary and three secondary) were classed under the subject headings proper. Only two secondary books appeared under the specific subject, "Evolutionary and Genetic Ethics." Twenty-three of the forty-eight articles appeared in unanalyzed serials under relevant subjects. The subject catalog, which offered no equivalent historical approach, revealed twenty-six (seventeen primary and nine secondary) of the thirty-five books under all relevant subject headings. Again, only two secondary books appeared under the specific subject, and twenty-three articles were represented under relevant subjects by the unanalyzed serials. The *CBEL*, using the historical approach, listed all twenty-four of the primary book titles under related and general subjects for the relevant period and country and added two primary articles and one secondary book, making twenty-seven in all. Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature* listed nineteen of the forty-two primary serial titles under relevant subjects. Rand's *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects* listed twenty-nine titles under all relevant subjects. These included eight of the eleven secondary books and seventeen of the twenty-four primary books. Five appeared under the specific subject. Sonnenschein's *Best Books*³² revealed five secondary books and twenty-

three primary books, with none under the specific subject.

Thus in the case drawn from Gantz's thesis, as well as in the three drawn from Faust's thesis, individual bibliographies or combinations of bibliographies were found to produce better results than the two library tools, taken separately or together. For the historical approach to book titles—that is, by periods, countries, and broad subjects—the *CBEL* and the *CHAL* performed better than the L.C. classification under "History and Systems" in "Philosophy" and "Ethics." For the special subject approach to book titles—that is, without period and country divisions—Rand, Malcom, and Sonnenschein each equaled or surpassed the library tools in the fields tested by these cases. Poole, of course, was unique for its analysis of periodicals, although Rand, Malcom, and the Cambridge bibliographies included some articles. In other words, if Rand, Malcom, Sonnenschein, and the Cambridge bibliographies had been consulted for book sources and the periodical indexes for periodical sources, the library catalog and classification could have added little except the most recent secondary book sources and the unanalyzed journals which had been omitted elsewhere. In these cases, however, the various tools were not carefully checked for the appearance of unique titles.

CONCLUSIONS

This study is concerned with the relative usefulness of the library catalog, shelf classification, and published bibliographies, in their capacity as revelatory devices,³³ to working scholars in the field of English literature. The catalog and classification of the University of Chica-

³² W. S. Sonnenschein, *Best Books* (3d ed., 5 pts.; London: Routledge, 1910-31).

³³ Devices which reveal groups or classes of publications.

go Libraries and the available published bibliographies were tested for the extent to which they reveal under significant headings the library materials used in the preparation of selected Chicago doctoral dissertations representing different types of English studies. With respect to these particular case studies, three conclusions may be set forth.

First, individual bibliographies, or combinations of bibliographies, were in every case found to produce better results—sometimes far better results—than the library catalog and classification,³⁴ taken separately or together. In connection with the studies of literary works and works of literary criticism, the *Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature* and the *Cambridge History of American Literature*, together with the current bibliographies in the field, alone proved to be more useful than the library catalog and classification.

Second, although it may be said that the available bibliographies supplemented the two library tools, it cannot be said that the library tools supplemented the bibliographies in any important way. For the studies of literary works and literary criticism the library tools revealed only occasional unique titles; and for the studies of the general cultural background they revealed only a few unanalyzed periodicals and recent secondary sources which were omitted from the bibliographies. The deficiencies of the latter were numerous, but they were not corrected by the library catalog or classification.

And, third, the library catalog and classification to a large extent duplicated each other. Where analysis and over-

lapping subjects were involved, the catalog supplemented the classification. The classification supplemented the catalog in the historical grouping of literary texts. But, in the main, the two devices tended to employ the same kinds of headings and to reveal the same materials under them.

Many factors accounted for these variations in the performance of different tools. Since the importance of these factors differed greatly from one type of study to another, it becomes difficult, if not dangerous, to generalize about the extent to which they operated to the advantage or disadvantage of particular tools, or kinds of tools, in the service of all types of studies. Nevertheless, a few general observations, which by no means cover all contingencies, may be permissible. These factors relate, first, to the relevance of the headings or classifications used in different tools and, second, to the amounts and kinds of materials revealed under those headings.

Regarding classifications, it may be said that the library tools, taken together, provided serviceable headings of each type required by these cases, although bibliographies in some instances provided headings which were better shaped and combined for the special purposes at hand. No important differences occurred in the subdivisions used for secondary sources about individual authors, except that such subdivisions proved to be effective only in the more analytical bibliographies, such as the *CBEL* and Hammond's Chaucer manual. For studies of the intellectual aspects of the literary tradition, only the *CBEL* offered a subject classification of the literary works of different periods. The *CBEL* was the only tool encountered which subdivided the critical theory of a period and country by literary forms.

³⁴ The performance of the shelf classification, as reported in this study, should be discounted to some extent, since all books were assumed to be shelved together in one sequence.

No device, on the other hand, divided the criticism relating to an individual author by periods and countries.

The most important general problem of classification raised by this study is that of period and country, or historical, classification.³⁵ As already noted, all the Chicago doctoral theses were historical. However they may have differed in other respects, all were carefully dated and localized. Moreover, the literary works, the criticism, and the cultural background of the same periods and countries were studied in relation to each other more frequently than any were studied separately. In brief, the ideal scheme for the literary historian would bring together the literary, critical, and background materials produced by particular periods and countries and the later secondary studies relevant to them. The *CBEL* was the only general tool encountered which approximated this ideal. The two library tools, as well as most bibliographies, dispersed these materials widely. In this connection, it may be noted that the modernity or lack of modernity of the classifications in different tools did not significantly affect the findings of this study.³⁶

With these few exceptions, the library tools suffered little for lack of suitable headings. But they did suffer for lack of materials revealed under those headings.

³⁵ This problem is discussed at some length near the close of chapter vi of the unpublished dissertation of which this is the essential portion, especially as it relates to the nonliterary background materials required by the English scholar.

³⁶ Only one of the background cases drawn from Faust's thesis—the one on faculties of the mind—was complicated by recent developments in a field. In this instance the library catalog and classification, as well as most bibliographies, instead of being out of date were too modern to represent clearly the older conceptions which were the objects of historical study.

Several important reasons may be summarized here. First, it will be noted that each type of study represented by these cases required the use of a different kind of heading and that frequently these headings overlapped with respect to the library materials involved. The library tools, taken together, provided headings which were more or less relevant to each type of study; but, instead of developing each kind of heading consistently and independently, they tended to divide the available materials among the overlapping headings. The better bibliographies, on the other hand, tended to treat each kind of subject as a separate problem and to bring together under each the necessary materials regardless of other claims upon those same materials. Several examples may be noted.

The field of literature overlaps the subject fields with regard to "intellectual" literature. In general, the library tools allocated this literature to the subject fields, thus depleting the literature class. The bibliographies prepared by and for the literary scholar—for example, the *CBEL* and the *CHAL*—brought those materials together with other literary works. Within the literature class, the sections for critical theory and for literary works compete for criticisms of particular literary works. The *CBEL* and other bibliographies attempted to reveal those materials in both places, while the library tools depleted the sections for critical theory. In the subject fields, the L.C. classification provided both historical and special subject headings for philosophy and ethics, then divided the available materials between them. Rand's *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects* consistently developed the special subject approach, while the *CBEL* developed the historical approach. Each

produced better results than the classification.

Closely related to the problem of overlapping headings is that of the analysis of books and periodicals. The failure of the shelf classification to provide any analysis whatever and that of the catalog to provide anything further than the most obvious and elementary kinds of analysis was probably the most important single factor responsible for the relatively poor showing made by these tools. A large proportion of the titles used in these cases—in several instances, almost all of them—required analytical treatment of one sort or another in order to appear under the relevant headings and especially under the specific headings. Various bibliographies, of course, did no better than the library tools. Hurst's *Literature of Theology*, for example, like the shelf classification, permitted only one entry per book—the entry which best described the book as a whole. Other tools, however, provided excellent examples of the intensive analysis required by the English scholar. Noteworthy among these were Malcom's *Theological Index*, the *CBEL*'s section on eighteenth-century critical theory, the *CHAL*'s bibliography on Jonathan Edwards, and Hammond's Chaucer manual. These are examples of bibliographies which endeavored to bring together the most useful materials under fairly minute subjects regardless of how, or where, or in what relations those materials happened to be bound into physical volumes. They were bibliographies which revealed more of the required materials, even among those owned by the library, than did the more superficial and external library tools.

Other variations in the extent to which the required materials were brought together under appropriate headings con-

cerned the relations which materials may bear to those subjects. Studies of literary works required the use of texts and secondary sources and occasionally of primary sources. The library catalog and classification brought together the texts and secondary sources only for studies of individual authors. For studies of periods and other aspects of the literary tradition, the catalog brought together only secondary sources, and the classification separated the secondary sources from the texts. The *CBEL*, on the other hand, brought together the texts and secondary sources relating to periods, forms, special subjects, and the like, as well as those relating to individual authors. Studies of the intellectual background of any period and country required the use of primary and secondary sources. In subject tools—bibliographies as well as the library catalog and classification—the secondary sources were sometimes distributed under headings for the history of a subject, but seldom the primary sources. The *CBEL* was the only tool tested in connection with these cases which offered an effective historical approach to the primary as well as the secondary background materials. In general, the pure subject tools tended to treat all nonliterary materials, with the exception of "histories," as secondary sources for the study of other than historical subjects.

The fact that bibliographies could not reveal the more recent materials did not prove to be disastrous since the available supplements and annual bibliographies usually did as well as, and sometimes better than, the library tools in revealing those materials. This problem, of course, involved only the listing of secondary studies. A tool which brings together the materials produced by a period in the world's history can never go out of date

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with respect to the literary texts and primary historical sources required for the study of that period. The advantage which the library tools might have gained in combining the new and the old in one arrangement was for the most part lost because, for other reasons, too few of those materials, whether new or old, were revealed under the relevant headings anyway.

The bibliographies, on the other hand, gained little advantage over the library tools because of materials which were not owned by the library. Aside from certain rare editions and manuscripts needed for textual studies, all but a very few of the required materials were available in the University of Chicago Libraries.³⁷ If the catalogs and classifications of less adequate research libraries had been tested, a still poorer showing by those tools could have been expected.

Selectivity was another factor which affected the listings in many, if not all, of the bibliographies tested. The *CBEL*, for example, was selective in the listing of secondary studies, though not in the listing of literary texts. The *CHAL* was sometimes selective and sometimes not. Poole's *Index* revealed only the most important reviews. Sonnenschein's *Best Books* was weaker in eighteenth- than in nineteenth-century materials. Yet, on the whole, bibliographies were available which suffered less through deliberate selectivity (especially selectivity on irrelevant grounds) than the library tools suffered through lack of analysis (which in effect is an irrelevant kind of selectivity).

Although the importance of these and other factors varied greatly from tool to tool and from case to case, their cumulative

effects gave the available bibliographies the advantage in every case over the library catalog and classification. In the search for an over-all explanation of this phenomenon, it was necessary to refer continually to the nature of the processes by which the better bibliographies and the library tools had been compiled. Indeed, it seemed probable that if any such explanation, other than economic, is plausible, it might be that the process of bibliography is more purposeful and realistic than that of cataloging and classification. The bibliographer—at least the more efficient bibliographer—begins with a subject and asks what books are related to it. The cataloger begins with a book and asks what subjects are related to it. The bibliographer looks for books which might satisfy a given need; the cataloger looks for needs which a given book might satisfy. Of these two processes, that of the bibliographer takes the reader's point of view—the reader who cares only what materials are useful in the study of his particular subject, not where particular materials belong in a universal scheme of knowledge, what relations they bear to subjects other than his own, whether they consist of whole volumes or parts of volumes, and the like. The cataloger, on the other hand, seldom takes the reader's point of view. Nowhere in his whole process is the special subject examined, as the bibliographer examines it, in order to bring together under that subject as many of the required materials as possible. He still produces a useful tool, but the bibliographer undoubtedly produces a better one.

Thus far only the results obtained from a small group of case studies have been considered. The question arises, then, of the reliability of these data. If other subjects of the same kinds had been

³⁷ Some of these materials were doubtless acquired for the special researches reported in the theses here studied.

used to test the library's bibliographical apparatus, would similar conclusions have been reached? No forthright answer can be given to this question. The fact that the available bibliographies produced better results in all ten areas covered by the case studies strongly suggests reliability, yet no considerable weight can be given to that fact because of the number and complexity of the variables involved. Nevertheless, two assumptions can be made which help to clarify the question and which offer grounds for at least tentative and partial generalization.

First, regarding general tools which cover the whole field, it may be assumed that similar results would be obtained for other subjects of the same kinds in so far as those tools are consistent in their treatment of those subjects. The principal general tools tested by this study were the library catalog, the shelf classification, the *CBEL*, and the *CHAL*. The consistency of both library tools with regard to all factors which affected the results of this study can hardly be questioned. The *CBEL*, which produced better results than the library tools for the case studies of English literature and criticism, also appeared to be fairly even. If so, it seems reasonable to expect that the *CBEL* would also surpass the library tools for other studies of a similar nature. The *CHAL*, on the other hand, was highly irregular, so that no general significance can be attached to the data obtained from it. If only a bibliography of American literature comparable to the *CBEL* were available, then it might be argued that, in the field covered by this investigation, these general bibliographies, together with the current tools, would alone be more useful to the scholar

than the library tools.³⁸ For background materials, several tools tested by this study—for example, Rand's *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects*, Malcom's *Theological Index*, and Sonnenschein's *Best Books*—also appeared to be generally useful within fairly broad areas. The possibilities outside those areas, however, were not suggested by this study.

Regarding the more special tools, it may be assumed that similar results would be obtained in so far as tools comparable to those tested by this study are available for other subjects of the same kinds. This writer is not familiar enough with the general field to risk any generalization on this point. He can only suggest the possibilities by pointing to such manuals as Cross's *Bibliographical Guide to English Studies*³⁹ and Spargo's *A Bibliographical Manual for Students of the Language and Literature of England and the United States*.⁴⁰ The existence of these manuals, however, is alone evidence that the bibliography of English literature is a highly developed resource—a resource which the librarian should be careful not to underestimate.

Regardless of the general significance which may be attached to these data about the usefulness of existing bibliographies, particularly special bibliogra-

³⁸ The Bibliographical Society of America is now sponsoring "what is hoped will be a definitive short-title bibliography of American literature of the last 150 years"—a bibliography which promises to supply part of the need suggested above. See Bibliographical Society of America, *News Sheet*, No. 63 (1944), pp. 5-6.

³⁹ Tom Peete Cross (comp.), *Bibliographical Guide to English Studies* (8th ed.; University of Chicago Press, 1943).

⁴⁰ John W. Spargo (comp.), *A Bibliographical Manual for Students of the Language and Literature of England and the United States* (2d ed.; Chicago: Packard & Co., 1941).

phies, this study has at least singled out examples of bibliographies which surpassed the performance of the library catalog and classification—a performance to which fairly general significance may be attached. It has defined several kinds of revelatory service which are likely to be valuable to the English scholar and has demonstrated that those services *can* be provided much more effectively than they are now provided by the library tools. The question then follows: In the interests of better service to this group of readers, should an effort be made to develop either or both of the library tools in such a way that their performance in all necessary areas will equal or surpass that of the better bibliographies, or should more of the better bibliographies be compiled to fill the gaps which still need attention? What policy should the library adopt toward the further development of these several forms of bibliographical organization?

SUGGESTIONS

To conclude this study, a few suggestions about the library's bibliographical policy may be offered. These suggestions, of course, concern only the revelatory function of bibliographical devices, not their function of providing information about, or locations of, specified publications; and they concern only the needs of the working scholar in the field of English literature. If the conflicting needs of other students should sometimes be overlooked or if unjustified assumptions should be made about those needs, the reader is expected to qualify these suggestions as he sees fit. It should be recalled, moreover, that the data on which these suggestions are based relate only to the extent to which different devices, or kinds of devices, may be ex-

pected to reveal the required materials under significant headings. This is only one aspect, even though perhaps the most important aspect, of the criticism of such devices. Other aspects include the criticism of the arrangements of headings, the uses of cross-references, the descriptions of materials, the physical forms of the devices themselves, and their accessibility to the reader. All these factors affect the ease with which a reader can locate the appropriate headings in different tools and avail himself of the materials listed under them. Although no evidence on these points was produced by this study, the experience of the writer in executing the case studies may be worth mentioning.

One of the most persistent criticisms of bibliographies has always been the difficulty of their use. By and large, less difficulty was encountered during this study in searching out the relevant headings in the appropriate bibliographies, once the bibliographies had been assembled, than in searching out those headings in the library catalog and classification. Tool for tool, the library catalog and especially the classification were more complex than any bibliography tested in connection with this study. Even so, it took more time and effort to search the bibliographies. There were two reasons for this. First, the writer was never certain that he knew about all, or even the best, bibliographies for any particular purpose. Thus he could never quite call an end to his search for the available tools. And, second, those tools were scattered through many parts of the library system, from the main stacks to special reading-rooms and departmental libraries. Nowhere was a substantial part of them brought together for convenient reference in one place.

Indeed, the task of identifying and locating copies of the possible tools consumed almost as much time and effort as that of checking them for the required titles after they had been located. In the experience of this writer, the difficulty of using bibliographies related less to the nature of the tools themselves than to their inaccessibility. Of this, more will be said later.

The following suggestions, then, besides being limited to the need of a single group of readers for a single kind of bibliographical service, are postulated without evidence about certain factors which, in addition to those treated in this study, may affect the usefulness of bibliographical devices.

Regarding the card catalog, three general points may be noted. First, as this study demonstrates, the present catalog—at least that of the University of Chicago Libraries—falls far short of providing the English scholar with the quality of bibliographical service which is known to be possible through published bibliographies, of which examples are available. Second, to this writer at least, it does not seem remotely possible to develop the catalog to the point of providing that quality of service. To do so would require a degree of elaboration which seems inconsistent with the administrative possibilities involved, especially with regard to cost. Indeed, if present-day cataloging has reached an impasse, it might then court disaster. And, third, if this is true, it follows that the librarian should definitely forgo the catalog as a future means of serving the research worker in this field. He should forgo the catalog in order to make way (1) for the further development of other kinds of tools which can perform this particular function better and (2) for

the further development of the catalog itself for other functions which it can perform better. A continuing struggle to make the general catalog serve as a revelatory device for the English scholar might be a disservice not only to the scholar himself, in the sense that it would interfere with a more adequate program, but also to the readers who might profit more, for example, from a smaller, less complex, and more truly selective catalog. It is quite possible, of course, that published bibliographies, or reading lists, might be more valuable to those readers too.

The shelf classification presents, for three reasons, a different problem. First, it possesses even less potential value as a revelatory device to the English scholar than the library catalog. Whereas the catalog is capable of analyzing books and of entering them under a variety of headings, the shelf classification can do neither. In its present form the classification employs an impressive array of schedules. No other tool encountered in the course of this investigation provides such an abundance of alternative, detailed, and overlapping approaches to library materials; yet no other kind of tool is inherently so incapable of revealing the library's resources to the reader using those approaches. As a result, the classification dissipates even the small capacity which it does possess as a form of bibliographical organization. Yet, second, in most large research libraries, the classification is available only to the scholar, except when fragments of it appear in special reading-rooms and collections. As long as this situation exists, the general classification, unlike the catalog, must be made useful to the scholar if to anybody. And, third, regardless of whether the classification can be made

especially useful to anybody, some arrangement of books on the shelves is essential for administrative purposes.

This peculiar combination of problems leads this writer to one conclusion. If a classification must be used anyway, if it can be available only to the scholar, and if it is incapable of carrying out its present manifold assignment in a manner useful to the scholar, then it would be wise to seek for the classification a less pretentious job—a job well within its capacity to perform and yet of definite value to the scholar. One possibility is historical classification.

The possibility of adopting a period classification recommends itself for three principal reasons. First, the historical approach to library materials is at once greatly neglected in bibliographical tools generally and highly useful to the literary scholar—indeed, to all historical scholars. A general historical tool would therefore possess distinctive value. Second, the primary limitation of shelf classification—its inability to reveal a volume in more than one place—might not seriously interfere with a period arrangement, as it now does with a special subject arrangement.⁴¹ Periods, unlike many subjects, especially ideas, are one-dimensional and discrete; and the majority of books contain materials from or about definite periods. Within each period broad subject headings might be used. These would still overlap in every direction, but at least their convolutions would be confined to narrow limits. And, third, such a scheme could be placed in partial operation, as will be noted below,

⁴¹ It was observed in this study that the shelf classification performed best in sections which employed period headings—the section called "History and Systems" under "Philosophy" and that for individual authors under "Literature."

without disturbing the greater part of the existing classification.

Of course, this suggestion is postulated upon the assumption that such a scheme would be valuable not only to the literary historian but to other historians as well. It would be a general classification for historical purposes. For nonhistorical purposes, other tools would be required. Even so, a large body of the materials which possess current subject value, especially the comparatively recent materials, would need to be segregated, as they often already are, in special reading-rooms and departmental collections. This suggests the possibility of drawing a sharp line between what might be called the current and historical collections. New materials could be sent unclassified to the appropriate current collections where they would be shelved according to temporary, flexible arrangements designed to serve immediate needs—again as they often already are. When they have served their immediate purpose or have become obsolete, those which promise to possess historical value could be permanently classified in the historical collections, still probably long before the historian would have need of them.⁴² The rest, including duplicates, would never receive permanent processing or reach the permanent collections.

This scheme could be put into effect without greatly disturbing present practices regarding special collections of current materials. It could also be put into partial effect without disturbing the existing general classification, if a new period class with broad subject divisions

⁴² Note the anthropological, geological, and biological materials used in Gantz's thesis. It is doubtful if many of them still possess current subject value to the students in those fields.

were started as of today. The present classification, whether Dewey or L.C., could be accepted for the last fifty or one hundred years. If resources became available for reclassification, the materials from and about the earlier periods could later be segregated, if it seemed worth while, thus gradually putting the plan into full effect. These period classes would be nonexpansive, except for the addition of new secondary studies and new editions of the older works.⁴³

Another workable plan might be to divide broad subject classes historically, as is now done under "History and Systems" in the "Philosophy" and "Ethics" sections of the L.C. scheme. In any case, the important point would be to give the shelf classification a distinctive function consistent with its nature and capacity and of value to scholars, including the literary scholar, but at the same time not to expect the literary scholar to place his main reliance on the classification. If the general catalog were adapted to serve the needs of other groups of readers, then the library's major effort in the service of literary scholarship would be in the field of bibliography.

Although this study has been in no direct way concerned with the costs of producing and servicing different kinds of bibliographical devices, the present argument for greater emphasis on bibliographies, as contrasted with library catalogs, has largely an economic basis. There seems to be nothing in the nature of catalogs as such, unless it be their limitation to particular collections of

books, which makes them inferior—or, as some believe, superior—to bibliographies. The essential point is that, through publication, the bibliography serves a wider public and is therefore less costly.⁴⁴ For less money, a more thorough and specialized job can be done for larger and more homogeneous groups of readers.⁴⁵ This truism has long been demonstrated in part by the analysis of scientific journals and periodicals in printed indexes instead of in library catalogs. The bibliographies tested by this study, moreover, can be assumed to have cost the University of Chicago Libraries far less than the corresponding sections of the libraries' catalog. In brief, there is reason to believe that, if the librarian could divert to bibliographies even a small part of the money and effort now spent on library catalogs, the higher quality of service already achieved in some areas by existing bibliographies could be equaled or surpassed in all necessary areas.

An aggressive program in the field of bibliography would require planning (1) for making the existing bibliographies more accessible to the scholar, thus reducing as much as possible the difficulty of their use—they will have to be used anyway—and (2) for the production of bibliographies of the most useful kinds to fill what now are gaps. Regarding both of these requirements, a few sug-

⁴³ The published catalog, although it may serve a wider public than the card catalog, is still local in its scope and significance. Moreover, the co-operative or centralized production of card catalogs for individual libraries does not offer economies equal to those offered by the similar production of bibliographies which can also be used co-operatively.

⁴⁴ There may be more English scholars throughout the country, for example, than there are readers of all kinds in a single library's clientele. Thus a highly specialized bibliography may actually serve a wider public than a general library catalog.

⁴⁵ Cf. John J. Lund and Mortimer Taube, "A Nonexpansive Classification System: An Introduction to Period Classification," *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 373-94. These writers contended that all materials should be classed by period of publication, thus separating secondary sources from texts and primary sources, and new editions from the old.

gestions may be offered. First, to make bibliographies more accessible, the individual library could organize a strong bibliographical service department. Such a department is all but nonexistent in the majority of American libraries. Indeed, bibliography not only is separated from cataloging, which now occupies the center of the stage, but is subordinated to reference work, where it tends to lose its identity and to be lost from public view. There may not even be a member of the reference staff who is known as a bibliographer;⁴⁶ and only a few of the most general bibliographies may be shelved in the reference room. A stronger bibliographical department might bring together in a single room the greater part of the library's bibliographical apparatus, including the library catalog; it might provide a complete, analytical index to that collection and to other bibliographies which must be shelved elsewhere; and it might service that collection through a competent staff of bibliographers. In such a manner the library could advertise the available bibliographies as prominently as it now does the card catalog and could make them nearly as easy for the reader to consult.⁴⁷ From an interlibrary point of view, the further development of bibliographical centers would serve the same ends. The bibliographical center, however, seems to be of less immediate importance than a reorientation of the individual library's service program at the point closest to the reader—where he now meets the library catalog.

⁴⁶ A "bibliographer" in the sense of one who is proficient in the use of bibliographies, as contrasted with one who makes bibliographies.

⁴⁷ Such a department, moreover, could greatly facilitate the further study of the relative usefulness of different kinds of tools.

Regarding the production of new scholarly bibliographies to fill existing gaps—gaps which the library tools would no longer be expected to fill—at least two contributions could be made by the librarian. First, within the individual library, the present cataloging processes could be reoriented to embrace the bibliographical processes in general, of which cataloging is one part. The cataloger, then, would no longer be isolated from other kinds of bibliographical activity but would assume responsibility for the co-ordinated production of bibliographies and reading lists as well as catalogs and classifications. To enforce the abandonment of the present unilateral cataloging program and to insure the adoption of a more balanced and realistic attitude toward the values of other forms of bibliographical organization, this processing department might be disassociated from the acquisitional processes and combined with the bibliographical service department.⁴⁸ In such a manner the processing staff would be in contact at all times with the bibliographical collections, the uses made of those collections, and the activities of other bibliographers. The processing and service staffs might even be made interchangeable.

This bibliographical department might undertake, in addition to the necessary cataloging, the compilation of special reading lists and bibliogra-

⁴⁸ In this case, the library organization would consist of four major departments: acquisitions, bibliography, reference, and circulation. It will be noted that this scheme leaves no place for the current conception of "technical" departments as contrasted with "reader" or "service" departments. Each of these four distinctly functional departments would involve technical operations of one kind or another and would come into contact with the reader at one point or another. Cf. John J. Lund, "The Cataloging Process in the University Library: A Proposal for Reorganization," *College and Research Libraries*, III (1942), 212-18.

phies of immediate and transitory local interest. Beyond that, each professional bibliographer might be expected to undertake as a part of his regular work, even if only a small part, a bibliographical project of more permanent and general value. If catalogers throughout the country were to accept this as a professional duty, there would be no dearth of special bibliographies of every kind and description.

The success of such a program, however, would depend largely upon the existence of some kind of central planning and co-ordinating agency, and this is the second contribution which the librarian could make toward the production of needed bibliographies. In co-operation with the bibliographical societies (whose separate existence might no longer be necessary), the learned societies, the Library of Congress, the principal publishers of bibliographical apparatus, and other interested bodies, he might sponsor a central agency which could survey existing needs, serve as a clearing-house for information about work in progress, advise bibliographers and scholars who are about to under-

take new projects, initiate and supervise major co-operative projects (including cataloging projects), and assist in the publication, reviewing, and distribution of finished works. The major interest of such an agency would be the forging of a balanced and unified program embracing all forms of bibliographical organization in their most economical and efficient relationships.

These suggestions may be hasty and ill-considered, but they will serve to indicate that ways do exist for implementing the conclusions of this study. It has been shown by example that published bibliographies can provide the English scholar with a quality of service which surpasses that provided by the present catalog or classification. Unless the catalog or classification can be made to equal the performance of the better bibliographies, it behooves the librarian to develop a more positive program in the field of bibliography. Whether the librarian chooses to do this or not, the scholar will doubtless continue to develop his own program. But the librarian could make the scholar's work lighter if he worked more closely with him.

THE COVER DESIGN

GÉRARD LEEU introduced printing into Gouda in 1477 and printed there (with a short interruption) until 1484. But he realized the advantages of Antwerp, which was rapidly becoming the most prosperous city in Europe, and in 1484 transferred his business to that metropolis. He was admitted to membership in the guild of St. Luke—the company of the painters, sculptors, and other artists of Antwerp—in 1485.

Possessing ample capital, Leeu began to produce books of high quality in an unheard-of quantity. In Gouda he printed 58 editions, many of them large volumes, in six years. In Antwerp he produced 140 editions, 75 of them illustrated, in less than nine years.

Leeu printed books in many fields—service books of the church, saints' legends, sermons, devotional manuals, the classical authors, philosophical works, pedagogy, school texts, science, medicine, a popular novel, folk literature, astrology, music, history, and law. Like the great scholar-printers who followed him, he handled several languages in his shop—Latin, Flemish, French, and English. His works in English were printed at the end of his career: *LeFèvre's History of Jason* (1492), *The Story of the Knight Paris and the Fair Vienne* (1492), *The Dialogue of Salomon and Marcolphus*

(1492), and *The Chronicles of England* (1493).

He is especially noted for his superb illustrations. He employed both Dutch and French artists, and his illustrated books were long copied by later printers.

Leeu was prospering in Antwerp when, in

1493, a disastrous accident occurred. He got into a dispute with one of his workmen, a letter-cutter named Henric van Symmen. In the course of the argument the workman struck his master on the head, and Leeu died two days later from the effects of the blow. The death was considered accidental, and the letter-cutter escaped with a fine of forty marks.

The printer died as his edition of *The Chronicles of England* was nearing completion. A compositor added to the colophon of the book these touching words:

By maistir Gerard de leew, a man of grete wyse-
dom in al maner of kunning which nowe is come from
lyfe vnto deth/which is grete harme for many a
poure man. On whos sowle god almyghty for hys
hygh grace haue mercy.

Reproduced is one of Leeu's marks. It is a representation of the citadel of Antwerp.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE
LIBRARY



THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

RAYMOND L. KILGOUR, a native of Lexington, Massachusetts, was born July 27, 1903. He studied at Harvard University, receiving his A.B. in 1925 and his Ph.D. in Romance languages and literatures in 1930. After spending a year in Europe on a Sheldon Traveling Fellowship from Harvard, he taught French language and literature at that institution from 1931 to 1941. In 1942 he obtained the A.B.L.S. degree from the University of Michigan and then spent a year at Carleton College as assistant librarian and assistant professor of Romance languages. In October, 1943, he went to Lima, Peru, on the assignment reported in his article in this issue of the *Quarterly*. At present he is a reference assistant in the reference department of the New York Public Library, prior to entering upon a teaching position in the field of library science in 1945. He is the author of *Honoré Bonet—A Fourteenth-Century Critic of Chivalry* ("Publications of the Modern Language Association" [June, 1935]); *The Chivalry of the Cid* ("Harvard Studies and Notes in Romance Philology" [1935]); *The Decline of Chivalry* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1937); *Brantôme's Account of Sixteenth-Century Chivalry* ("Harvard Studies and Notes in Romance Philology" [1937]); and "La Significación del servicio de referencia," *Boletín bibliográfico de la Universidad Mayor de San Marcos*, June, 1944.

MYRA KOLITSCH was born September 30, 1920, in Appleton, Wisconsin. She received her B.A. from Lawrence College in 1943 and her B.L.S. from the University of Wisconsin in 1944. While attending college she worked as a student assistant in the Appleton Public Library. At present she is employed as a junior assistant li-

brarian in Burgess Library at Columbia University, where she is studying for her Master's degree in philosophy.

JESSE HAUKE SHERA: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, III (1933), 422. From 1938 to 1940 Mr. Shera was on leave from the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems for study at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, where he received the Ph.D. degree in 1944. In the autumn of 1940 he became chief of the census library project of the Library of Congress and one year later chief of the reference section of the division of special information at the Library. In 1942 he was appointed chief of the reference section of the central information division of the Office of Strategic Services, a position which he held until the spring of 1944, when he received an appointment as bibliographer in the social sciences at the University of Chicago Library. On July 15, 1944, he became chief of the preparations department of that library. His published writings include numerous articles and reviews in library and historical journals, special bibliographies in books prepared by the research staff of the Scripps Foundation, and a study of the history and development of libraries and museums in Seba Eldridge's symposium on the development of collective enterprise in the United States.

RAYNARD COE SWANK: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XIV (1944), 350. Mr. Swank is visiting lecturer in the Division of Library Instruction, University of Minnesota.

REVIEWS

Melvil Dewey. By FREMONT RIDER. ("American Library Pioneers," edited by EMILY MILLER DANTON, No. 6.) Chicago: American Library Association, 1944. Pp. xv + 151. \$2.75.

This is a long overdue book. While a full-length life of Melvil Dewey was written by Grosvenor Dawe and privately published in 1932, no critical and impartial biography of the most important and influential American librarian of our time has appeared. This short sketch of the man and his work by the librarian of Wesleyan University is a very successful attempt at a considered and impartial verdict on a man who seems naturally to have inspired intense partisanship or intense dislike. Mr. Rider has tried, and on the whole successfully, to avoid either extreme. He is evidently under the spell of Dewey's remarkable personality, but he has maintained a cool judgment in writing of his amazing subject.

For Melvil Dewey was a genius—nothing short of it. This fact Mr. Rider recognizes in the opening words of his Preface. What the world of scholarship owes to him is little less than miraculous, and yet his career was full of the most extreme contradictions, even to the point of frustration. The reviewer well remembers Dewey—his impetuous zeal, his power of effective argument, his amazing ingenuity, his glowing personality, and his immense power of arousing enthusiasm or bitter opposition. Nobody who came in contact with him could remain indifferent to him—you were either his foe or his friend on the spot. And he had plenty of both among both librarians and educators.

One feels that it is yet too soon to assess Dewey with complete impartiality. He was the great advocate of public libraries as a means of public education, but he was never librarian of a municipal library, his library career being confined to two colleges, Amherst and Columbia, and to the New York State Library. He was the inventor or early advocate of all manner of devices in library technique; yet his address on the occasion of the centennial celebration of the New York State Library in 1918 showed clearly that he had not kept pace with the most recent developments of library tech-

nical processes. He will be best remembered as the originator of the Decimal Classification—an achievement conceived at the early age of twenty-two and published in 1876 at twenty-five. It is almost impossible to exaggerate the importance both of the decimal notation and of the idea of "relative location," both fundamental concepts of the Classification. This alone would have brought lasting fame to any man. But Dewey also established the first library school and was chiefly instrumental in founding both the first association of librarians and the first library periodical, both in 1876. Also, he first brought women prominently into librarianship—in fact, the first library school was wrecked (and incidentally the librarian and director forced to resign) because he was inflexible in his determination to admit women students to the then exclusively masculine Columbia. And he was always and persistently the evangelist of librarianship, in Mr. Rider's phrase.

This book should bring home to younger librarians the debt they owe to the greatest of the "Library Pioneers." It is well worth repeated reading. Too much is taken for granted by the present generation of librarians, and this book will help them to understand how the foundations of their professional training and equipment were laid.

Mr. Rider divides Dewey's active career into the "Contributions"—i.e., "The Decimal Classification," "The Library School," "As the Evangel of Librarianship," "The Library Associations," "Library Periodicals," and "Women in Library Work"—and the "Diversions," under which are included "The Regents [of the State of New York]," "The [Lake Placid] Club," and "The Reforms." Certainly the "Diversions" were not germane to Dewey's library enthusiasm, but they covered a quarter of a century, a period when his influence on behalf of libraries should have been at its peak. What a pity that his enormous powers should have been "diverted," under the stimulus of controversy, into these extraneous channels!

Mr. Rider has been judicious and extremely careful in assessing Dewey's labors and his char-

acter. That in itself is no small achievement. If he fails wholly to persuade the reviewer against his personal recollection of the bitter controversies in which Dewey seemed to delight, that is not the fault of overstatement or undue prejudice. In fact, he has handled an extremely difficult subject in an admirable way.

Mention may perhaps be permitted of the undoubted fact that Dewey made but few lasting friends among men of distinction, while, on the other hand, he was always supported by a devoted group of women. Mr. Rider dwells on the friends but passes over the foes. In this he is undoubtedly right. The controversies and disputes of the past may well be ignored, but loyalty and friendship are always worth remembering.

That Dewey had singular success as a librarian in the day-by-day work of a library is well shown in an extract from a letter from President Barnard of Columbia to Seth Low (p. 59). Little mention of similar success at Amherst and at Albany is made in the book under review, but we may safely take it for granted. If controversy and innovations loom large in these pages, it is not proper to forget success in routine administration.

Altogether, this is a satisfying book, compressed to the limit and in no case padded, despite a wealth of material which might easily have led to expansion. One suspects editorial care, both by the editor of the series and by the author. In any case, the result is gratifying.

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP

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The Library in the Community: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 23-28, 1943. Edited by LEON CARNOVSKY and LOWELL MARTIN. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. Pp. viii+238. \$2.50.

The theme of the eighth Library Institute, held at the University of Chicago in the summer of 1943, cannot be better stated than in the words of the editors:

Librarians are often told that their institution does not exist in a vacuum. What they are told about far less often is the nature of the community of which

their institution forms a part, how their institution may exert an influence upon it, and how the community, in turn, may affect the nature of the services the library provides. To such general considerations the Institute . . . was devoted.

In the first of the eighteen papers, Professor Carnovsky presents, as he has done before, that heartening philosophy of librarianship which sees the public librarian in a democracy as a statesman, "not too far removed from his people, but . . . a little in advance of them, in the direction of what they ought to want." Five later papers, by social scientists and social planners of note (Professor Louis Wirth, Professor Samuel Kincheloe, Mr. Charles Ascher of the National Housing Agency, Mr. M. L. Wilson of the United States Department of Agriculture, and Mr. Walter Blucher of the American Society of Planning Officials), analyze the structure of different types of community: metropolitan, smaller urban, suburban (this last with delicious humor), and rural; and then the city of the future, not utopian but convincingly practicable.

Five librarians describe effective service now being given in varying communities: Mr. Ralph Ulveling, in a large city; Miss Grace Gilman, in "Middletown and Suburbia"; Miss Mary U. Rothrock, very vividly and specifically, in rural Tennessee. Miss Edith Wolinsky tells the story of two widely different but successful library-sponsored forums—one in Polish South Chicago, the other among Czechs on Chicago's West Side. Mr. Russell Munn's account of a library-hatched but certainly self-raised community council is perhaps as hope-inspiring a picture as any in the volume.

Two factors always "so pervasive and powerful as to warrant special consideration" in the life of a community are the schools and organized labor. These are ably discussed by Professor Stephen Corey and by Mr. William Spencer of the War Manpower Commission. Two other factors, very active "for the duration," are civilian defense and the means of disseminating accurate information in wartime. Describing the first, Mr. Walter Roy of the Chicago Office of Civilian Defense gives a picture of self-government, of organization emanating from the people instead of imposed from the outside, that may well refresh one's faith in the working of democracy. Mr. Clyde Hart of the Office of War Information, considering the problem of keeping the citizen informed in wartime, offers experience gleaned in that most difficult field of com-

munication and throws out a challenge to all who control other mediums of communication to unite in a "program of education for final victory"—that is, an intelligent and well-organized peace founded on the wishes of the whole citizenry. Professor Cyril Houle pleads for a community program for adult education in which all agencies shall thoroughly co-ordinate their activities—an effort in which the library might well become a kind of clearing-house as well as the provider of necessary printed matter. But for such a role, as he observes, public librarians may need somewhat different training from that now provided in library schools. This group of papers seems to strike a happy medium between the extremes so often met in exhortations to social improvement—on the one hand, brilliant but negative analysis of present shortcomings and, on the other, utopian pictures of an ideal future. These have their feet on the ground and leave one with some specific notions of what to try next.

Instrumental to such possible next efforts are the last pair of the eighteen papers—a description of the technique of community survey, by Professor Wayne McMillen, and suggestions as to how it may be adapted to the particular needs of libraries, by Mr. Lowell Martin. In conclusion, one can only quote again from the editors' Foreword:

By way of a short summary of implications for virtually all public libraries . . . the following general conclusions are suggested by the reading of these papers:

1. The public library exists essentially, though not exclusively, to disseminate information and to foster enlightenment.
2. The most effective method available to it is the provision of books which inform and enlighten.
3. Beyond mere provision of books, the librarian has the obligation to encourage their use.
4. Because ideas are more important than the form in which they are presented, libraries are justified in going beyond books in their services.
5. Libraries have instituted forums, discussion groups, and community councils, all to the end of fostering understanding of local, national, and international problems and of solving problems on the local community level.
6. Libraries conceive one of the purposes of such programs to be that of stimulating and guiding further reading, but evidence that group activities promote reading is not yet conclusive.
7. To be effective the service programs of libraries must grow out of an understanding of the community served. This goes beyond such obvious considerations as racial composition and economic

levels to more complex factors such as cultural traditions and the community's formal and informal organization.

8. Since no two communities are exactly alike, there can be no stereotyped community library program.

The readers of the Institute papers will be able to interpret them in terms of their own libraries and their own communities.

May the reviewer add: Hasten the day when all public librarians will do so!

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Frontiers of American Culture: The Story of Adult Education in a Democracy. By JAMES TRUSLOW ADAMS. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1944. Pp. xiv+364. \$2.50.

The term "adult education" is a creation of the twentieth century, having received official recognition with the founding of the American Association for Adult Education in 1926, but its origins go far back in history. In this informal study Mr. Adams attempts to uncover the roots of American adult education and to explain its varied manifestations in the light of the characteristics of American folk life.

Seeking someone with historical perspective who would survey the course of adult education in America objectively, the A.A.A.E. showed wisdom in choosing Mr. Adams. Although an amateur in the field of adult education, as he quickly and frankly admits, his pre-eminence as a historian of American culture peculiarly fits him for the task of placing American adult education in its proper setting.

Believing that adult education is as broad as life itself, he sees it closely bound up with the struggle to found a democracy; an integral part of the "American dream" to "rise and make the most of oneself" which has been such a potent force in American life. The people who settled America were "picked" men and women, coming voluntarily because they wanted to get ahead. Once they had arrived, education was an absolute necessity. Each successive stage in our national evolution demanded its specific type of education, colored by ideas which our unique kind of life called forth—ideas which have persisted down to the present. Distance

from Old World authority produced our strongly individualistic ways of thinking. The rigors of pioneer life demanded brawn and practical hardheadedness rather than culture. Constant shifting of the population, owing to the ever advancing frontier, swiftly changing industrial growth, and the influx of millions of foreign-born desirous of sharing the American dream made continual adjustment necessary, and always emphasis was on the practical. Speed was another important element which affected the educational pattern in our expanding nation, resulting in the popularity of the "five-foot-shelf" type of education. What culture existed in those early days was largely due to the women who, lonely and starved for the more spiritual qualities in life, formed groups which later developed into the women's club movement with programs often of questionable cultural value.

Against this background of evolving American tradition Adams attempts to analyze the adult education jumble of today, which, he frankly admits, has him stumped. He can see little unity or order in it; but he concludes that, if adult education is as broad as life itself, life is far from being "organized and tidy." Material for this last half of the book is admittedly drawn almost entirely from the studies in the social significance of adult education published by the A.A.A.E. Those who are familiar with these excellent volumes will find little that is new in this section, but Mr. Adams' breezy opinions and personal experiences which serve to illustrate his points are always refreshing and often instructive. His good spirits and objectivity vanish, however, as he approaches the federal government's ventures into the adult education field. His previous sly digs at the New Deal become outright blows as he lashes out at "planners."

In the final chapter he sees a great future for adult education; in fact, the success of the world of the future will depend upon the adequacy of its adult education—but it must develop in an America which will "remain basically individualistic . . . a self governing democracy with opportunity and individualism as its motive-powers."

This is a sprightly book, written with freshness and enthusiasm and in a conversational vein. Adult educators will welcome the first section, which, although largely an extension of his *Epic of America*, vigorously and specifically demonstrates the relationship of adult

education to our historical development. The final, somewhat hurried, summary of present-day practices will be enjoyable reading for the general reader, but it lacks the profound understanding of purposes and methods which is to be found in other writings on the subject, notably the survey of the *Literature of Adult Education* by Beals and Brody.

SIGRID A. EDGE

*School of Library Science
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Report on War and Post-war Adjustment Policies.
By BERNARD M. BARUCH and JOHN M. HANCOCK. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. Pp. iv + 108. \$0.20.

This is a sober but, on the whole, optimistic and confident recommendation of ways and means by which our country can be reconverted from its gigantic war effort to a peacetime economy, with a minimum of economic disturbance and individual hardship and suffering. Written in homely, direct English, with less superfluous wordage than is usually found in government reports, and devoid of technical jargon, it is a common-sense analysis of our complex economic problems readily understandable by the layman.

It is frankly a plan to make our capitalistic system work and has been criticized in some radical quarters—unfairly, in the opinion of this reviewer—as a millionaire's plan for making the world safe for big businessmen. Already partially put into effect, it has on the whole been well received by most of the persons who will be directly concerned with bringing our thundering production juggernaut gradually down to a more manageable and safer pace without letting it slow down too rapidly or burn itself out in a final frenzied burst of speed.

Three major recommendations stand forth from the many made. First of these is the creation, in the Office of War Mobilization, of a new, important position, that of work director, to be concerned with the human problems of the demobilization of returning veterans and war workers alike. Second is the setting-up of a surplus property administrator to be responsible for the gradual and balanced disposal of unneeded war goods which will be piled up after the war. Both of these recommended positions have already been created and filled. Third

among the recommendations which impress this reviewer as particularly important is the expressed opposition to the creation of a new, separate Office of Demobilization, with the countersuggestion that the same agencies that did the mobilizing carry out the comparable task of demobilizing. This seems like good sense, but it is contrary to the report of the Senate committee on postwar economic policy and planning, under Senator George (published several months after the Baruch report), which states specifically that Congress will need to create such a new, separate demobilization agency at once "if an intolerable unemployment situation is to be avoided."

There may be some question as to the feasibility of the recommendation that preparations be made now for future action to reduce taxes from wartime to "peacetime" levels. If this means "pre-war" levels, such a reduction hardly seems possible, particularly in view of the fact that, for almost a decade before the war, our federal government was, in spite of returning prosperity, steadily spending more than it took in. With the pre-war debt increased about sevenfold, at least one citizen of these United States, neither understanding nor having much confidence in the extra-special and fancy brands of economic legerdemain, is resigned to paying very heavy taxes indeed for a good many years.

Higher education receives little more than a passing nod in the report, with only a recognition of the need of its quick conversion back to peacetime levels in order that we may not, in the future, be devoid of the many educated and trained people needed in every field of human endeavor. It is urged that persons whose courses have been interrupted be encouraged to resume their training. This, too, has already been done through the generous educational provisions of the "G.I. Bill of Rights."

Librarians will be particularly interested in the following statement from the section on price inflation: "Most of the pressure groups have brought about the conditions of which they complain. Those who do the least complaining, the great body of white-collar workers—the policemen, firemen, school teachers, members of professions—they have suffered most." This is at least some recognition. It will not buy the baby shoes, but it is perhaps a bit comforting to know that we are not completely forgotten.

It is significant and symptomatic that the only attention given to research is the recom-

mendation for a closer practical application of the results of scientific research, in order to produce goods to satisfy in greater abundance the physical needs of man, thus reducing our national reliance on imports. This reviewer submits that we understand and exploit our physical world, for the time being, at least, too dangerously well. What we need to emphasize, in research and in higher education, is how to enjoy the things we have, how to cultivate and develop humane and spiritual values, and how to understand and live with our fellow-men in peace and harmony. Perhaps some day some wise president will assign a capable citizen or two to bring in recommendations on this vital matter. It won't be easy.

WILLIAM H. CARLSON

University of Washington Library

Marching Home: Educational and Social Adjustment after the War. By MORSE A. CARTWRIGHT. New York: Published for the Institute of Adult Education by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. iv+44. \$0.25.

Marching Home begins with a group of what might be called case studies of demobilized persons from the armed forces and from war industry. The purpose of this section is to bring before the reader the variety of individuals who must adjust socially and economically after the war and to show how important a part many agencies will play in this vast problem involving thirty to thirty-three million people.

For example, the case of Joe Davis, Pfc., U.S.A.A.F. (ground crew), demobilized, is presented. His wartime experience and training are sketched and his potential abilities and ambition presented. He is shown in various situations as a plan for his adjustment is worked out, first before the Watkinsville Selective Service Board, then before the Adjustment Service for Veterans in the Chamber of Commerce, where a vocational counselor puts him at ease and after a conference secures a temporary job for him which will take care of his financial needs while he undergoes more training before he invests his savings in his chosen business—automobile repairing.

After this pointed analysis of a lifelike situation, another section develops the scope and na-

ture of the general problem, calling attention to its many aspects, particularly assistance in re-training and re-education as well as continued training and education and the more difficult problems of the casualties from war and industry which must be rehabilitated physically and mentally.

Under rehabilitation the case of Johnnie Doughboy is presented concretely. While he is convalescing, Johnnie comes under the direction of a camp vocational counselor, who tests him and helps him to decide on being a jeweler. After his discharge he continues his training under the direction of the Veterans' Bureau until he is ready to take a position and be self-supporting.

Job placement is only one of the objectives sought. The author foresees that there will be a necessity for a large social orientation program involving assistance to demobilized persons. They must fit into family life anew; they must find recreational outlets and religious, educational, and social opportunities which inevitably grow out of their war experience. In these activities the service and welfare organizations, churches, and schools will play a great part.

Under "What Government Can Do," various government agencies are drawn into the picture, but six agencies are stressed particularly: the Selective Service, the United States Employment Service, the Veterans' Bureau, the United States Office of Education, the War Manpower Commission, and the Office of Rehabilitation in the Federal Security Agency. Further along in this section a brief description of various state plans is included, particularly that of New York, which, through its board of regents, has established a system of temporary veterans' high schools and a program to include twenty-two "technical institutes" for the benefit of demobilized civilians and veterans. Both of these agencies will offer a wide variety of courses to meet vocational and cultural needs. Connecticut's citizens' councils are also to be concerned with adjustment problems in that state. It is assumed that a single federal agency will finally co-ordinate all federal activities, and similar co-ordinating agencies may be created within the states individually.

Under the heading "Coordinated Services," the provisions of education and training as projected by the government late in 1943 are outlined. The reader is led from the *Report on Postwar Training and Adjustment* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942) through the

Report of the Conference on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel published by the National Resources Planning Board, to the definite plan for re-education with maintenance allowance. The two similar bills known as the Thomas and the Barden bills are presented, the Thomas Bill at some length.

The last sections consider the importance of training, community and institutional organization, and specifically the plans of Teachers College, Columbia University. The necessity for training leaders, teachers, and counselors is stressed, with the burden particularly on universities, colleges, and special schools. In group-work and social relief agencies, the existing professional staffs should be trained through refresher courses in ways to help the veteran. The possible recruitment of trained personnel from the military and from a huge reservoir of well-intentioned volunteers is also mentioned. The contributions of schools, service clubs, veterans' groups, churches, industry, and civic organizations can be put to very good use. Adult education councils are usually practiced in co-ordinated action through their type of organization in most cities.

The pamphlet ends with a two-page bibliography of books and pamphlets on veterans' problems.

How does the library fit into this program?

The public library, as a collection of books, as a democratic institution serving a broad public, as an institution with some claim to leadership in education, as a public agency for recreation, or as a welfare institution merely providing shelter to thousands through the year—the library with reference to any or all of these functions is not mentioned in this pamphlet.

Perhaps the library is included by inference, but to the library-minded reader the omission of any mention of it at points where it certainly could have been at least listed is noticeable. In the presentation there are several places where it seems libraries might have been indicated as equipped and worthy to play a part.

That libraries can provide leadership materials could have been brought out under the heading "Training at Every Level." With regard to "Social Orientation," where better could the serviceman find information which will open his eyes "to new concepts of what in a better world might constitute this abundant life" than in the library? Under "Reality in Content," the individual nature of the adjustment situation is indicated in these words:

"Youths . . . will be youths in years when they return but . . . adult in outlook and point of view. They will find it difficult to adjust to the ordinary routines of school, college, and even of university training." Many will be capable of making their own choices, and will insist on so doing. Can they not find guidance and education through books and services in the library? Again, under "Lower Level Needs Important," it might have been brought out that in most of the larger libraries, through readers' advisory services or other means, special attention has been given to remedial reading problems and to simplified materials in all fields wherever such aids for the educationally handicapped are available.

More than once Mr. Cartwright has stressed the fact that the veteran will have to make his postwar adjustment in his own community and with the personalized service that community can give. No matter how much federal participation there is, this must hold. Many libraries, the smaller as well as the larger the country over, have much to offer in individualized service appropriately constructive for many kinds of needs. *Marching Home* succeeds in making concrete the whole problem of the demobilized person. It will be read by leaders, personnel workers, guidance counselors, welfare workers, and a host of other people who should be informed about the resources of public libraries and what they can do for the Joe Davises and Johnnie Doughboys on Main Street and on Fifth Avenue. It is regrettable that Mr. Cartwright has not supplied this information.

GLENN M. LEWIS

Minneapolis Public Library

Library Extension under the WPA: An Appraisal of an Experiment in Federal Aid. By EDWARD BARRETT STANFORD. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. Pp. xiii + 284. \$3.00. (Planographed.)

Mr. Stanford has compiled a story which needed to be told. It is the first comprehensive record of how libraries were used for work relief in a serious economic crisis. The text summarizes the history, structure, extent, types, and results of library extension projects attempted through federal aid in the form of work relief. It offers the work relief experiment as a prototype for permanent federal aid for libraries.

The author has made an exhaustive examination of printed, mimeographed, and manuscript records of federally supported and/or directed projects incident to the work relief programs of 1933-42. These include work under the F.E.R.A., C.W.P., C.W.S., P.W.A., N.Y.A., and W.P.A. The W.P.A. is given special attention. Two state-wide programs are "selected for . . . detailed treatment . . . South Carolina and Minnesota, states whose geographical, political, economic, and social conditions are strikingly dissimilar and whose WPA library projects therefore evolved along entirely different patterns."

The digest of data has yielded interesting charts and tables showing the status of the federal participation in the several states. The charts and tables are illuminating and reward study. They reflect "magnitude," which is probably the only measure which the collected data could yield. If the effort is to be evaluated in terms of employment provided, then the measure is valid. But as measures of effective book service the figures tell very little.

In the distribution of assistance in money, materials, and personnel there was found to be striking variation over the country. The figures reflect the fact that the W.P.A. library service was built upon relief need rather than upon the estimated need of library service, the area's ability to pay, or the willingness of the population to support such service. The author points out that large grants and apportionments can be traced to leadership, to organization, and to the activities of a strong state library agency. He points to these factors as essential in future plans for federal aid.

The strength and weaknesses of the projects are summarized in considerable detail. The strong features are itemized as: planning on an area-wide basis; organization following "accepted principles of good administration"; "staff and line" organization operating on federal, state, and local levels; plans for expert professional supervision; modification of program to suit locality and local need; economy of effort in large-scale programs; centralized book selection and ordering; centralized cataloging at the state level; integration of citizen committees and local effort with "outside" assistance; recommended contractual basis of operation; formulation of approved procedures and standards; in-service training program for inexperienced workers; increased book stock; assistance to established libraries; organized

area-wide program of promotion and public relations; mobilization of book stock facilitated by bookmobiles; and improvement of physical condition of book stock.

As weaknesses the author sees: inadequacy in planning and general direction; ineffective control; friction between hastily instituted authorities; overlapping or duplicating efforts growing out of weak promotion or conflicting ideas as to the suitability of proposals; failure to apportion benefits according to need for assistance in the local library service—a weakness evolving from the primary importance of relief needs; inadequacy of personnel—invariable if the project “was dependent for its very existence on providing work for persons in need of relief”; difficulty in providing able professional supervision; overexpansion of the book-binding project; and inadequate preliminary surveys.

Certain weaknesses are stated in terms of further studies called for. These further studies are: a sound basis for determining the need for federal aid; a valid study of the basis of tax support for libraries in the individual states; a study of the relative costs of operation under various plans and systems of distribution of agency and service; a study of the causes of failure of projects or demonstrations of extended library service; and, finally, a definition of the proper role of federal and state aid. These recommendations are some of the strongest points in the entire study and go far to justify it.

In summarizing strength and weaknesses, the author says most significantly that “in a very real sense the entire WPA library program can be considered an administrative dilemma, almost incapable of wholly satisfactory solution.” And elsewhere: “The WPA program of assistance to libraries came into being as a by-product of federally-administered work relief, and therefore cannot be expected to exhibit all of the attributes of an ideal plan for federal library aid.” But he concludes that “in consideration of the conditions within which WPA library projects had to function, the results that have been achieved in spite of their fundamental deficiencies are doubly notable.”

Throughout the study Mr. Stanford is handicapped by his stated purpose of testing the fundamental proposition that “notwithstanding its primary objective of providing work for needy persons, the WPA . . . has developed a pattern of federal library assistance and extension by demonstration that is essentially sound.” He is therefore under the necessity of consider-

ing whether the organization and accomplishments of a work relief program applied to libraries is a suitable prototype for a program of subsidized library service. While he emphasizes “the fact that all library activities undertaken by the WPA are necessarily conditioned by the limitations of a work relief program and are subservient to it,” nevertheless he fails to see that this circumstance *ipso facto* invalidates the transfer of practices and principles directly from such a relief program to authentic library service.

The author cannot divorce himself from the position that work relief is a justifiably accepted and acceptable factor in the operation of libraries. That libraries offer acceptable opportunities for the employment of “needy women and professional and white-collar workers” may be true. But the converse, that libraries are acceptably served by the employment of needy women and white-collar workers, has not been proved by this study.

Evidence of sound achievements in “facilitating the development of permanent, area-wide, tax-supported library service” is not found in the text. It may be justly claimed that the date at which the study was made was too close to the termination of the projects. Achievements may have to be reported later by the agencies and associations concerned with the extension of library service in the various states, by the American Library Association in surveys of vital residues of the experiments, and through the voices of the citizens who have been the recipients of the service supplied by the projects.

Looking ahead to the possibility of further library extension under federal or state aid the author urges librarians to make early preparation of plans which will meet the approval of subsidizing authorities. Federal or state aid in many situations in the future will undoubtedly be a necessity and, under controlled conditions, a wise practice. With the difficulties discovered by this study, the advice to plan early and wisely is more than justified. The responsibility for making plans which are professionally sound and for claiming a due share of authority in the direction of the projects rests undeniably with the members of the profession and with the citizens interested in establishing and benefiting by the service.

The style of the text lacks the smoothness and flow of good writing. It follows too slavishly a skeleton outline of topics and summaries. The

use of the volume is handicapped by the lack of an index.

ETHEL M. FAIR

*Library School
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Marks of Readable Style: A Study in Adult Education. By RUDOLF FLESCH. ("Contributions to Education," No. 897.) New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. 69. \$1.85.

To the growing list of studies of the baffling problem of readability there is added this new book by Flesch. It is still another of the many attempts to develop a single and comprehensive formula by means of which it will be possible to determine how easy or how difficult it is to read any given piece of print.

In developing the list of measures which make up this formula, Flesch first made a careful examination of the previous studies in the field and the pragmatic as well as the theoretical criticisms which have been made of them. On the basis of these studies he developed an initial formula which he tested by applying it to a number of magazines which were judged to represent five levels of difficulty. On the basis of the results of this experiment, he revised his formula. This he tested against the McCall-Crabb test lessons. As it was finally developed, the "Flesch formula" includes the following factors: average sentence length in words, number of prefixes and suffixes, and number of personal references.

Possibly because of the paper shortage or a small publication budget, the book is too brief. Its style is almost telegraphic, and in a number of places a fuller explanation or a richer statement of implication would have been desirable. Anyone who wishes to try out the formula, however, will find exact directions for doing so.

Any valid appraisal of the formula itself must await its practical application in a number of situations, both as it is tested by itself and in comparison with other measures. It is now being used and studied extensively so that some judgment of its worth should be forthcoming shortly. Even though judgment must be suspended for a time, however, it is likely that later investigations stimulated in part by Flesch's work will develop even more adequate measures.

It seems to this reviewer, however, that before the studies in readability can go much

further, two conditions must be met. First, there must be developed a valid test of adult reading ability for which adequate norms can be established. These data will then provide a true criterion in terms of which the efficacy of readability formulas can be measured. Second, the concept of what is to be measured should be somewhat more sharply defined so that the term "readability" will not be overlaid with a whole host of indefinite connotations. Any librarian knows that the technical reading difficulty of a book is only one factor in determining whether or not it will be read. One other important factor which comes immediately to mind is the reader's predisposition or interest concerning the content. If attempts are made to crowd into one formula all the factors which make a given book appealing to a particular person, the students of readability will find themselves in the same position as those mental testers who for so many years worked on the theory that the intelligence quotient was the sole measure of mental ability.

CYRIL O. HOULE

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"Bequest of Wings": A Family's Pleasure with Books. By ANNIS DUFF. New York: Viking Press, 1944. Pp. 204. \$2.00.

Most frequent of the calls which adults make upon the children's librarian is the request for advice on what to give children to read and how to make them like it. The materials and the procedure recommended by the librarian may be more successfully adopted when accompanied by a book like "Bequest of Wings." For in it the author has described the satisfactory progress her two children, a boy of four and a girl of ten, have made in reading enjoyment and, with the aid of books, in art and music appreciation during their short lives. The part that books and book-wise parents played in developing social attitudes, in sharpening perception of the life around them, in increasing discrimination in language use, and in enriching daily living should be possible of duplication for other children, though they may not have a former bookseller and librarian for parent.

The rewards of children's reading, Mrs. Duff maintains, are not exclusively literary nor are they entirely individual, but rather, when the reading is shared in the family, they in-

clude, besides an increased intimacy, a growing spiritual kinship and a mental stimulation mutual to both older and younger members of the family.

In proof, she describes the little boy's reaction to the nursery tales, picture-books, and poetry with which he was made acquainted, digressing now and then to comment on his sister's different tastes at the same age. Maturing feminine favorites are more fully described in the chapters on music and books, on reference books, on art, and on nature books. Both ages provide data for the discussion of food in books, of folklore (whose reading Mrs. Duff warmly defends), and of humorous tales. And the whole family is included in the quiet final chapter which reports their Christmas festivities in wartime and the books, songs, pictures, and recordings on which these were based. Throughout the book the materials mentioned are adequately described, and most of them, records and picture sources included, are gathered together in an appendix.

While the author is no more successful than other writers in telling her readers what constitutes an acceptable child's book, her selection of titles is uniformly excellent. Where they might not serve, she recommends certain standard aids and recourse to the public library or to friends with special training for further information. She accepts calmly children's casual consumption of pulp-paper products or comic strips, a fact which should allay hysteria in some parts. Very practical, too, is her account of the training of baby hands and minds in the proper care of books. But the outstanding feature of her book is the skilful motivation of interest in the printed word and the admirable tie-up between life-experience and written narrative, as these were practiced in her household. Always the relationship between real life and book life is kept in proper perspective; and the power of the one to illuminate and complement the other is ably demonstrated. Nowhere is she shrewder than in her observation that "there is no value for any child in a thing for which nothing in his experience has given him the key" (p. 19).

Some readers may occasionally find Mrs. Duff's choice of words cloying; for example, the half-year mark in a child's life invariably makes him "half-past one" or "half-past four." Others may be stirred to faint protest by her much-indulged propensity for quotation marks around words common in everyday use and clearly un-

derstandable in their familiar meaning, however special the field from which they originally came, as "the 'feel' of words," "'escape' from reality," to "'condone' behavior," and to "'condition'" a child. These, however, are minor questions of editing and do not at all invalidate the solid worth of the book.

"*Bequest of Wings*" should be twice welcome to children's librarians. It can be passed along to parents, teachers, and any other adults responsible for directing children's reading, particularly that of individual children. And it can be studied with profit by the librarians themselves for the fine clear light it throws on the difficult business of making contact between the book and the apathetic reader. To neither group of users will its underlying implication be lost: that the success of the venture depends largely upon the keenness of the adult's imagination in sizing up a particular situation and upon the fulness of his book knowledge in meeting it.

HELEN L. BUTLER

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American Literature in Nineteenth-Century England. By CLARENCE GOHDES. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. ix+191. \$2.50.

Professor Clarence Gohdes' *American Literature in Nineteenth-Century England* is a tantalizing book. It gives a great deal but withholds much. The author is not unaware of that fact, for he says that "it may seem to be merely a collection of essays." Surely that is what it is, as the highly arbitrary Table of Contents—"The Booktrade," "The Periodicals," "Humor," "Longfellow," and "Of Critics and Influence"—attests.

Yet, within the framework chosen, the author has done careful work, except perhaps in dealing with that pitfall of all authors, the "influence" theme, where one's imagination can easily be misled by similarity in the ideas of men working upon an interest common to all humanity. The discussion of influences, however, occupies very little space.

There is nothing new or startling in the intent of the volume, which is to show that in spite of Sidney Smith's "Who reads an American

book?" our books and periodicals were really popular in England. The present writer had indicated this as early as 1912. How arbitrary the plan of the monograph is can best be shown by Wiley and Putnam's *American Book Circular*, (April, 1843), which gives the following table of types of American books printed in England up to that time:

Theology.....	68	History.....	22
Fiction.....	66	Poetry.....	12
Juvenile.....	56	Metaphysics.....	11
Travels.....	52	Philology.....	10
Education.....	47	Science.....	9
Biography.....	26	Law.....	9

In this tabulation, what is surprising at first glance is the emphasis upon theology; but when we reflect upon the interest aroused in an inherently religious people by transcendentalism and by the struggle to throw off the terrors of Calvinism, this popularity does not seem so strange. Of course, a larger proportion of the theological volumes than of those in the other categories represented eighteenth-century work.

The average modern reader has little desire that Professor Gohdes should have given over one of his chapters to theology, which becomes less relatively important as the century advances, but he does wish that this indicative table could have been followed somewhat. Instead, we have a chapter on one poet alone, Longfellow, when poetry ranks eighth in popularity; though it is true that Longfellow himself at a later date may have raised the relative place occupied by poetry, and that 1843 is too early to include the full vogue of our Cambridge and Concord schools, which formed pretty much the British reading in American poetry. While we are grateful for the chapter on Longfellow (a queer choice, by the way, considering the present belittlement of Longfellow by the intelligentsia), we would gladly have exchanged it for one on fiction or travels.

Within Professor Gohdes' restricted field, the amount of carefully documented detail concerning the popularity of American writers and their books is a bit surprising, even to the specialist in American literature. Perhaps we have been too much concerned with the school of "American apologetics," or too deeply impressed with Abbé Reynal's pronouncement of 1774 that Europeans degenerated in America—a doom that led to many vigorous protests, from Thomas Jefferson's *Notes on Virginia* of 1784 to Professor Shaler's *Nature and Man in America*

of 1891. Certainly there is no hint of "apologetics" here. Rather can the American pass from the defensive of Lowell's "On a Certain Condescension of Foreigners" to Miss Repplier's "On a Certain Condescension of Americans," so popular have our writers been shown to be in England—a popularity, by the way, that Balzac and Hugo testified to in France.

Though Professor Gohdes writes about the nineteenth century, he does so with a feeling, probably not conscious at times, of the relation of the two countries, England and the United States, in the twentieth century. This is especially evident in the last two chapters, "Longfellow" and "Of Critics and Influence." The influence of Longfellow alone has been, as he indicates, tremendous in strengthening the ties of ideology between the two countries. One finds it hard to believe at first blush that Longfellow was more popular in England than in America, although the statement has been made occasionally in this country; but the author has produced enough evidence to set the question at rest.

Of course, what Professor Gohdes is sketching, without specifically saying so, is the rapid spread of education and democracy in England, which caused the wide reception of such simple and democratic writers as Longfellow, Riley, Field, Miller, and, in this century, Jack London. Such a study as this is a far cry from the time when literature was written by, for, and about the fine gentleman and lady almost exclusively, as in Pope's time. Literary criticism has concerned itself too much with the writer. Here one gets considerable information about those who make the writer possible, the readers. The first book that really paid the author through the sale of printed copies is said to have been Pope's translation of the *Iliad*, of 1720, an event which headed the moneyed patron toward swift oblivion, opened the way for a truly democratic literature, and pointed toward the appearance of the American authors noted in Professor Gohdes' study and the wide influence of democratic American writers in foreign countries.

In reading this provocative monograph, one longs for a chapter, if not upon fiction as a whole, then upon Cooper at least. But we may well be thankful for what we have, because Professor Gohdes has written a scholarly book which no specialist in American literature should fail to read. The most worth-while chapter to librarians is the first one, "The Booktrade." There is a valuable "Appendix [of] Representative Ar-

ticles on American Literature Appearing in British Periodicals 1833 to 1901" (pp. 151-80).

EARL L. BRADSHAW

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Simple Library Cataloging. By SUSAN GREY AKERS. 3d ed., re-written. Chicago: American Library Association, 1944. Pp. 197. \$2.25.

Present-day demand for trained catalogers emphasizes the need for a manual of classification and cataloging prepared primarily for "the librarian of the small public, school, college, or special library who lacks professional education and experience under expert guidance." The teaching experience of the author and her ability to organize and state the subject clearly, directly, and logically eminently qualify her to present a guide to practice. While its service "as collateral reading in the early stages of first-year cataloging courses" is listed as the author's third and last purpose in writing, the earlier editions have proved to be a dependable source for clarifying the thinking of beginning students who not infrequently find the complexities of the study confusing. The publication of a third edition, more than twice the length of the first edition of 1927, further confirms the position the manual is accorded.

Changes in arrangement of topics in the three editions undoubtedly reflect developments in teaching methods. Although classification, or the organization and arrangement of a library book collection, has consistently furnished the approach and opening chapter, only in this latest edition is it joined by choice of subject headings—the catalog's equivalent verbal expression of the book's subject. It is a moot question whether or not classification and the assigning of subject headings result from the same process of thinking, but economy in library organization often brings the two processes together, and there are teaching values in pointing to the supplementary capacities of the two related products. The subsidiary placing of simplified forms of cards for fiction and the descriptions of printed cards after the discussion of main, added-entry, and serial cards, with rules for arrangement, seems logical; and the final chapter offers sound advice on practical matters of sources of supplies and suggestions for

adequate working routines. Definitions of technical terms are preponderantly A.L.A. definitions, abbreviations follow Library of Congress practice, and the selected brief bibliography is enhanced by annotations suggesting types of additional material.

The publication of a new edition of the *A.L.A. Catalog Rules*, the fourteenth edition of the *Dewey Decimal Classification*, the fourth edition of *Sears's List of Subject Headings*, and the availability of printed cards from the H. W. Wilson Company have all been reflected in the changes bringing this third edition up to date. Illustrative references to books and subjects of current interest also bridge the eleven years that have elapsed since the publication of the earlier edition. "Air conditioning," "Broadcasting," and "Sulfanilimide" are no strangers to the librarian of 1944, and the books of Saint-Exupéry, Jan Struther, and Eve Curie are more frequently familiar to the library-school student than those of "Chesterfield, Philip Dormer Stanhope, 4th earl of."

Re-writing has served to amplify and to add to the clarity of many sections. The general rules for classifying based on Sayers' *An Introduction to Library Classification* gain in value over the simpler brief statements of the second edition, since there is greater indication of the variety of factors to be considered in determining the placing of a book in a library collection. Such emphasis should mitigate against tendencies to consider classifying a matter of rote and rule. Footnotes should not be overlooked, since such helpful notes for beginners as a description of differences between abridged and full Dewey tables are to be found there. Samples from the Dewey Index and from the tables with accompanying explanatory description, adequate samples of cards showing typed and various kinds of printed cards, and examples of filing entries illustrate effectively. One small protest in favor of a full filing entry on an extension card must stand as the reviewer's prejudice in a matter of style. Wartime restrictions have not impaired the quality of paper, binding, and choice of type of the volume, which can be recommended with confidence and pride by the professional librarian to the beginner, be he student or layman, approaching the deceptively simple-appearing task of cataloging and classifying books.

DOROTHY CHARLES

*Graduate Library School
University of Chicago*

The Thomas Jefferson Bicentennial, 1743-1943: A Catalogue of the Exhibitions at the Library of Congress Opened on April 12th. Washington: Library of Congress, 1943. Pp. 171.

This catalog, issued on the occasion of the celebration of the bicentennial of Jefferson's birth, sets a new standard for such publications. It is more than a guide for visitors to the exhibitions; in effect, it is the exhibitions themselves made permanently useful. The catalog is so organized that it provides a readable and interesting biographical study of Thomas Jefferson and a useful handbook of source material on the Revolutionary period. The documents described make an excellent composite picture of Jefferson's interests, activities, knowledge, philosophy, and contributions to his day. Because these interests were so widespread and so closely allied to the thought and events of his time, they also give an inclusive survey of one of the most important eras of American history.

The description of each section of the exhibitions is introduced by a concise preface, sketching the background of Jefferson's position in relation to its particular field. These, in themselves, furnish a reliable and accurate biographical account for both the historian and the lay reader.

In the enumeration of the individual items, great care has been taken to include pertinent quotations from the book or letter described and from correspondence concerning it, together with brief and scholarly comments on the significance of that item in relation to the exhibitions as a whole.

The first section is concerned with what is probably Jefferson's chief contribution to democracy, the Declaration of Independence, and traces the development of the ideas which finally took form in the draft adopted by Congress.

Librarians will be especially interested in Jefferson's influence in the development of the Library of Congress. This part of the exhibition includes a summary of Jefferson's correspondence at the time he offered his library to the government after the Capitol had been burned by the British. It gives an account of the transportation, arrangement, and cataloging of the Jefferson collection and the manner in which it was housed during the next century and of subsequent additions of papers and books. "If there were withdrawn from the Library of Congress as it now exists," Archibald MacLeish writes in the Introduction, "everything which grew from the roots Jefferson planted, and every-

thing which relates to the spirit Jefferson breathed, there would be little of its greatness left." This section, therefore, constitutes a miniature history of the Library of Congress.

The sections on the "Louisiana Purchase" and "Jefferson as a Map Maker" list much valuable source material on the history of early Virginia and the westward expansion of the United States. The section on "Jefferson and the Law" traces the development of American law, showing its foundation on the English law and its adaptation to the new country.

"There probably was not a private library in the later Colonial period and the early days of the young Republic so well selected as that of Jefferson." Thus the exhibition of books from Jefferson's library, the section on "Jefferson as a Lover of Music" and "Jefferson as a Scientist and Inventor" provide interesting and useful studies of the cultural and scientific development of Colonial America.

The inclusion in this volume of the address of Mr. Justice Frankfurter, given at the Library of Congress on the day of the celebration, "The Permanence of Jefferson," adds meaning and value to this publication and makes the reader aware of Jefferson's agelessness and timeliness. For, in the words of the Justice, Jefferson

could not, had he free choice, fix upon a better day than this for our reconsideration of the meaning of his life. . . . Jefferson shares with Lincoln—for Washington is a man apart—the power of fortifying and replenishing the moral resources of our people by renewal in action of that democratic faith which their lives represent and to which, as they believed, our nation was dedicated.

MINA RUESE

*Assistant to the Editor
The Papers of Thomas Jefferson
Princeton University*

A Source List of Selected Labor Statistics: Preliminary Edition. Compiled by a Committee of the SOCIAL SCIENCE GROUP, SPECIAL LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1944. Pp. x+37. \$1.50.

To those librarians and research people who have frequent occasion to refer to statistical information in the labor field this little handbook will be a welcome guide. Like most of the publications of the Special Libraries Association, it is the result of collaborative effort, in this case a special committee within the Social Science

Group, under the able chairmanship of Hazel C. Benjamin, librarian of the Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University.

The *Source List* is admittedly a preliminary edition and makes no claim to being exhaustive. Rather it is a selection of currently available statistics in December, 1943. As the Preface states, "There seems to be little doubt that the termination of the war will restore to circulation certain data not now available," and it expresses the hope that such titles will be included in subsequent editions.

As is to be expected, the listings are preponderantly titles issued by governmental (federal and state) agencies. The only nongovernmental materials included are publications of the Engineering News-Record and the National Industrial Conference Board.

The form of listing is adequate. Each entry includes compiler, title of publication, frequency, time-lag (an important feature in this type of statistical material), form, price, and description. Subject and title indexes and an address list point up the usefulness of the information.

Exploratory work of this nature is welcome. This reviewer for one hopes that periodic supplementing of the *Source List* will be provided for and that later editions will be expanded to include more obscure sources of statistics.

LUCILE L. KECK

Joint Reference Library
Chicago, Illinois

College and University Library Statistics, 1939-40. By RALPH M. DUNBAR and EMERY M. FOSTER. ("Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40," Vol. II, chap. vi.) Washington: U.S. Office of Education, 1943. Pp. 105. \$0.20.

The publication of another list of statistics for college and university libraries may seem like an unexciting event in the literature of librarianship, for we already have the Gerould list and the A.L.A. list published in *College and Research Libraries*. Actually, the publication of this volume is important, both for the facts it presents and because it lays the basis for future

co-ordination of presentation of library statistics.

Its value arises from the shortcomings of the other two lists. First, it is reasonably complete for the type of institutions represented. Second, its over-all summaries by states will be useful to the student of regionalism and of educational trends. Third, if continued over a long span of years, it will lay an adequate basis for analysis of library trends. Fourth, by including the category, "Number of volumes added during the year," it offers a significant fact that cannot be found elsewhere for a large number of colleges and universities.

Except for the data on income (it's hard to see the usefulness of figures on income when expenditures are also included) and volumes added, each category in its tables is also to be found in the A.C.R.L. list. The A.C.R.L. list includes certain categories not in the list under review, such as data on size, salary, and conditions of service of library staffs. Thus, although the two lists supplement each other, they also duplicate to a large extent. The large number of institutions included constitutes the principal advantage of the present list. The up-to-dateness of the Gerould and the A.C.R.L. list constitutes now their only *raison d'être*.

Since the publication of such lists is exceedingly costly in money and effort, co-ordination of the three would seem to be in order. The Gerould list might well be eliminated altogether. The A.C.R.L. annual list might include a larger number of institutions but a smaller number of categories of facts. Size of book stock, number of volumes added, and expenditures for salaries and books would seem to be sufficient for an annual list. If the omitted items cannot be added to the *College and University Library Statistics* list, publication once every five years in *College and Research Libraries* would be sufficient.

Revision along the lines suggested would provide the observer and the student with the facts he needs at a cost considerably less than is now expended on the three lists. Officers of the A.C.R.L. bear the responsibility of initiating the co-ordination.

RALPH E. ELLSWORTH

State University of Iowa Libraries

BOOK NOTES

Addresses Made before the Friends of the Howard-Tilton Memorial Library of Tulane University. By HOWARD MUMFORD JONES, ROGER PHILIP McCUTCHEON, and FREDERICK HARD. New Orleans, 1944. Pp. 39.

Of the three addresses here included, the librarian will be most interested in the first, "The Fear of Books," by Howard Mumford Jones. The flavor and argument of Professor Jones's paper are best presented by three quotations: (1) "We have developed finer and finer techniques for getting knowledge out of our libraries; but we have failed to maintain even simple techniques for getting wisdom and beauty out of the literature which the library exists to house." (2) "The library cannot remain forever passive in its attitude toward the special art which created it—the art of literature; and I suggest that when American libraries took over the slogan of department stores—'The customer is always right,' they missed out on part of their job. . . . Until our libraries exhibit more vigorous interest in literature as opposed to mere print, it cannot be expected that a handful of college professors will make much progress against the radio, the movie, and the picture magazines." (3) "We are not . . . the most literary nation in the world and the next problem before our libraries is how to lead us from literacy to literature."

The other addresses are entitled "Johnson and Boswell Today" and "William Alexander Percy" (the author of *Lanterns on the Levee* and other books). It is expected that future addresses before the Friends of the Howard-Tilton Memorial Library will be published later.

Historical Societies in the United States and Canada: A Handbook. Compiled and edited by CHRISTOPHER CRITTENDEN and DORIS GODARD. Washington: American Association for State and Local History, 1944. Pp. x+261. \$2.50 (\$1.75 to members).

This, the first revision of the *Handbook* since 1936, lists 904 historical associations—an increase of 56 per cent over the previous edition. The growth is due in part to a more complete coverage, but also it indicates a steady expansion in public interest in local history and the preservation of community records. Entries are arranged alphabetically by states, supplemented by a detailed index of forty-two pages. Each entry gives, wherever possible, the date of organization, the names of officers, the size of the paid staff, the number of members, the dues, the amount of annual income from all sources, the hours

of opening, the extent and character of the library and museum, and the publications issued. Because of its completeness and logical organization, this directory will be extremely useful to many librarians and to all workers in American history.

A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Haiti. By CRAWFORD M. BISHOP and ANYDA MARCHANT. ("Library of Congress Latin American Series," No. 3.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1944. Pp. ix+276. \$1.75.

A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Colombia. By RICHARD C. BACKUS and PHANOR J. EDER. ("Library of Congress Latin American Series," No. 4.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1943. Pp. vii+222. \$1.50.

The latest publications in the "Latin American Series" of the Library of Congress are being prepared by the Law Library (the Hispanic Foundation was responsible for the first two titles in the series). With these the Law Library resumes its plan for the compilation of guides to the legal literature of the major countries of the world, begun in 1912 with a *Guide for Germany* and continued in 1917 with Dr. Borchard's *Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile*.

These manuals are intended not only to acquaint the research worker with the legislation and the work of law writers in the Latin-American countries but also to give him a brief account of the principal aspects of their law. The critical bibliographical notes will serve as a guide for those who wish to work in the original sources, while the descriptive matter will suffice for those who wish a cursory acquaintance with the legal systems of the countries discussed. Librarians will also find the *Guides* useful as a check list for their collection in Latin-American law.

Forthcoming volumes in the Law Library's contributions to the "Latin American Series" include "A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Mexico," begun by the late John T. Vance and completed and extended by Mrs. Helen L. Clagett; a guide for Bolivia, Ecuador, and Paraguay; a guide for Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela; and a supplement to Dr. Borchard's old guide for Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. The Library of Congress series is supplemented by Edward Schuster's *Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of the Central American Republics*, published by the American Foreign Law Association in 1937.

"Bibliography of Morale, Including Books and Periodical Articles Published during 1937-43 (Inclusive)." Compiled by BENJAMIN CHURAK. New York, 1944. Pp. 34. \$1.00. (Mimeographed.)

The "Bibliography of Morale" published last year by the War Service Committee of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, Harvard University, has now been revised and brought up to date by its compiler. It contains books and periodical articles which have appeared in scholarly and popular journals on the subject of morale and military psychology. Many of the items are annotated, and a subject index is provided. Copies may be obtained from the compiler (5 Seventy-sixth St., North Bergen, N.J.).

Writings on Archives and Manuscripts, July 1942-June 1943. Compiled for the Society of American Archivists by KARL L. TREVER and MARY JANE CHRISTOPHER. Reprinted from the *American Archivist*, October, 1943. Pp. 16. \$0.25.

This bibliography, copies of which may be obtained from Lester J. Cappon, secretary of the Society of American Archivists, University of Virginia Library, Charlottesville, Virginia, is the first of a proposed annual series sponsored by the society's Committee on Writings on Archives and Manuscripts. It supplements Buck and Posner's *Selected References on Archival Administration*, which appeared in May, 1942, as "Staff Information Circular," No. 12, of the National Archives, and follows the classification scheme designed for that bibliography by Dr. Ernst Posner, of American University. The compilation brings together in convenient form a great variety of widely scattered materials relating to the many phases of archival practice, and its usefulness to librarians and archivists should more than justify its establishment as a regular feature of the October issue of the *American Archivist*.

The Library of Congress . . . and You. Prepared by the RECRUITMENT SECTION, PERSONNEL OFFICE, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. Washington, 1944. Pp. 44.

Prepared for staff members of the Library of Congress, this manual describes the library as service agency and employer. In it staff members are informed of the personnel policies and practices of the agency, from a general description of the classification of positions to a specific statement about personal use of telephones. Both content and style are suggested in the section headings: "The Library of Congress in a Nutshell," "You Come to the Library

of Congress," "While You're at Work," "You Should Remember," "And for Your Benefit," and "Spare Time in Washington." Replete with photographs, floor-plans, and humorous sketches, the booklet is an excellent example of the orientation type of staff manual.

The Library Movement in India: Certain Features. By K. NAGARAJA RAO. ("Library in India Series," No. 6.) Lahore, India: Modern Librarian, Punjab Library Association, Forman Christian College Library, 1944. Pp. ii+34.

In this small pamphlet the author sets forth clearly and compactly the nature and the problems of library service in India. Underlying the general absence of library facilities, he points out, is widespread illiteracy, only 12½ per cent of the population being able to read. He emphasizes the libraries now serving the literate minority and comments briefly on the facilities in several of the states. One of the most interesting is Baroda, with a central library, 46 district and town libraries, and 1,270 village libraries, supported in part by grants from the state on a matching principle. Looking to the future, the author mentions the need for legislation making libraries mandatory and largely financed by the provincial governments. This pamphlet is the second thus far published in a series planned ultimately to include thirty titles.

"Union List of Microfilms: Supplement II (1943)."

Issued by the COMMITTEE ON MICROPHOTOGRAPHY OF THE PHILADELPHIA BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CENTER AND UNION LIBRARY CATALOGUE. Philadelphia, 1944. Pp. xi+282. \$3.75. (Mimeographed.)

This, the second supplement to the original list, which appeared in 1942 (see *Library Quarterly*, XII [1942], 875-78), was prepared, like its predecessors, under the editorial direction of Rudolf Hirsch. More than thirty-six hundred titles, held by some eighty co-operating libraries, are included—a substantial increase over the number of entries in the first supplement. Increased activity in the cataloging of film materials, especially on the part of the Library of Congress, in conjunction with the growing recognition of the value of microfilm to research, in large measure account for this growth. Within three years the *Union List of Microfilms* with its annual supplements has established itself as an important bibliographical instrument for scholars and librarians alike, and one cannot but be somewhat apprehensive over the appearance of future additions now that the editor is in government service overseas.

BOOKS RECEIVED

- Addresses Made before the Friends of the Howard-Tilton Memorial Library of Tulane University.* By HOWARD MUMFORD JONES, ROGER PHILIP McCUTCHEON, and FREDERICK HARD. New Orleans, 1944. Pp. 39.
- The Angel of Peace.* By JOHN AMOS COMENIUS. Edited by MILOŠ SAFRANEK. English-Latin edition. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1944. Pp. 127. \$2.00.
- The Boom of the Eighties in Southern California.* By GLENN S. DUMKE. ("Huntington Library Publications.") San Marino, Calif.: Huntington Library, 1944. Pp. xi+313. \$3.75.
- Brasilian Portuguese from Thought to Word.* By FREDERICK B. AGARD, HÉLIO LOBO, and RAYMOND S. WILLIS, JR. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1944. Pp. xiii+277. \$3.00.
- Channeling Research into Education.* Prepared for the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education by JOHN E. IVEY, JR. ("American Council on Education Studies," Series I; "Reports of Committees and Conferences," No. 19; Vol. VIII.) Washington, 1944. Pp. xviii+187. \$1.25.
- Character Formation through Books: A Bibliography: An Application of Bibliotherapy to the Behavior Problems of Childhood.* Prepared by CLARA J. KIRCHER. Washington: Catholic University of America, 1944. Pp. 79.
- Cooperative Cataloging Manual for the Use of Contributing Libraries.* Issued by the DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGING DIVISION, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. Pp. 104.
- "Courts Martial Law of Soviet Russia, Germany, Italy, Switzerland and Japan and the Disciplinary Code of Soviet Russia: Translations and Surveys." By MEMBERS OF THE STAFF OF THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. 2d ed. Washington: Law Library of Congress, 1944. Pp. 67. Free to libraries. (Mimeographed.)
- A Dictionary of American Politics.* Edited by EDWARD CONRAD SMITH and ARNOLD JOHN ZUCKER. New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1944. Pp. vii+358. \$3.00.
- The Dissidence of Dissent: The Monthly Repository, 1806-1838.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1944. Pp. xiv+458. \$4.00.
- Foreign Influences in American Life: Essays and Critical Bibliographies.* Edited by DAVID F. BOWERS. ("Princeton Studies in American Civilization.") Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1944. Pp. x+254. \$3.00.
- Frances Willard: From Prayers to Politics.* By MARY EARRHART. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. Pp. x+418. \$3.75.
- Grimm's Fairy Tales: Complete Edition.* New York: Pantheon Books, 1944. Pp. 864. \$7.50.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Haiti.* By CRAWFORD M. BISHOP and ANYDA MARCHANT. Washington: Library of Congress, 1944. Pp. ix+276. \$1.75.
- Handbook of Card Distribution.* Issued by the CARD DIVISION, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. 7th ed. Washington, 1944. Pp. vi+88.
- Historical Societies in the United States and Canada: A Handbook.* Compiled and edited by CHRISTOPHER CRITTENDEN and DORIS GODARD. Washington: American Association for State and Local History, 1944. Pp. x+261.
- I Love Books: Why, What, How, and When We Should Read.* By JOHN D. SNIDER. Rev. ed. Washington: Review & Herald, 1944. Pp. 574. \$2.50.
- The Library Chronicle of the University of Texas, Vol. I, No. 1 (summer, 1944).* Edited by JOSEPH JONES, Department of English; published by the Library of the University of Texas, DONALD CONEY, Librarian. Pp. 46.
- The Library Movement in India: Certain Features.* By K. NAGARAJA RAO. ("Library in India Series," No. 6.) Lahore, India: Modern Librarian, Punjab Library Association, Forman Christian College Library, 1944. Pp. ii+34.
- List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries: Including Practical Suggestions for the Beginner in Subject Heading Work.* Edited by MINNIE EARL SEARS and ISABEL STEVENSON MONRO. 5th ed. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1944. Pp. xxviii+536. \$2.75.
- "Lista de las revistas y otras publicaciones en serie que se encuentran en la biblioteca." México, D.F.: Biblioteca Benjamín Franklin, 1944. Pp. vii+73. (Mimeographed.)
- "Materials on the Pacific Area in the Oriental Library of Claremont Colleges Library and in the Libraries of Pomona College and Scripps College, Claremont, California: A Preliminary Checklist for a Union List of Materials on the Pacific Area in Selected Libraries of the Los Angeles Area." Compiled and issued by CLAREMONT COLLEGES LIBRARY. Claremont, 1942. Pp. 141. \$2.00. (Mimeographed.)
- "Materials on the Pacific Area in Selected Libraries of the Los Angeles Area: A Second Checklist," Part I: "Books in Western Languages"; Part II: "Periodicals and Serials"; Part III: "Books in Chinese and Japanese Languages." Claremont: Claremont Colleges Library, 1943-44. Pp. ii+286; 86; iii+63. Part I, \$3.50; Part II, \$2.50; Part III, \$2.00. (Mimeographed.)

- Men and Saints: Prose and Poetry.* By CHARLES PÉGUY. Rendered into English by ANNE and JULIAN GREEN. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1944. Pp. 303. \$2.75.
- Mentor Graham: The Man Who Taught Lincoln.* By KUNIGUNDE DUNCAN and D. F. NICKOLS. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. Pp. xxix+274. \$3.75.
- The Miracle of Beatrice: A Flemish Legend of c. 1300.* Translated by ADRIAAN J. BARNOUW. English-Flemish edition. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1944. Pp. 109. \$2.00.
- Municipal Research Bureaus: A Study of the Nation's Leading Citizen-supported Agencies.* By NORMAN N. GILL. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 178. Cloth, \$3.00; paper, \$2.50.
- One Thousand Books for Hospital Libraries: An Annotated Bibliography.* Selected by PERRIE JONES. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1944. Pp. 58.
- A Preliminary Check List of Russian Dictionaries Published in the U.S.S.R. 1917-1942.* Compiled by GEORGE A. NOVOSILTZEFF. Washington: Library of Congress, 1944. Pp. iv+143.
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- TVA—Democracy on the March.* By DAVID E. LILIENTHAL. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. xiv+248. \$2.50.
- The Warning Drum: The British Home Front Faces Napoleon: Broadides of 1803.* Edited by FRANK J. KLINGBERG and SIGURD B. HUSTVEDT. ("Publications of the William Andrews Clark Memorial Library.") Berkeley: University of California Press, 1944. Pp. vii+287. \$4.00.
- We Who Honor Books: Selected Papers of Ethel R. Sawyer.* Issued by the PACIFIC NORTHWEST LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Seattle: Dogwood Press, 1944. Pp. 99.
- The Wilmington Public Library and the New Castle County Free Library: A Historical Sketch.* By JOHN P. NIELDS. Wilmington, Del.: Wilmington Institute, 1943. Pp. 17.

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